A Working Grammar of The English Language

James C. Fernald

Oscar Ritan

A WORKING GRAMMAR
OF THE
ENGLISH LANGUAGE

DESIGNED TO GIVE IN SIMPLE STATEMENT THE PRINCIPLES AND METHODS OF CORRECT ENGLISH SPEECH AND WRITING

BY

JAMES C. FERNALD, L.H.D.

AUTHOR OF "SYNONYMS, ANTONYMS, AND PREPOSITIONS," "CONNECTIVES OF ENGLISH SPEECH," ETC.

SECOND EDITION

FUNK & WAGNALLS COMPANY
NEW YORK AND LONDON
1910

COPYRIGHT, 1908,
BY
FUNK & WAGNALLS COMPANY

(Printed in the United States of America)

Published November, 1908

PREFACE

THIS is called "A Working Grammar of the English Language" because the design is to make it a working tool by which any thoughtful and intelligent student can secure mastery of correct expression in the writing and speaking of the English language.

The aim has been to present English as English — a real and grand world-language, having a special genius of its own, and not to be shaped to the model of any other. Its lack of intricate and complicated forms is not lamented as "poverty of inflections," but is welcomed as an acquisition and an attainment, wrought out by the conflicts of centuries, with the result that the English language has achieved a marvelous simplicity, such as no other language ever attained, and has made that simplicity compatible with exactness, force, and beauty. The endeavor has been to get the simplicity of the language into the grammar. It is believed that the essentials of English grammar are of such transparent clearness that any good intellect can instantly apprehend them when they are once fairly presented. To present these essentials with the least possible encumbrance of grammatical machinery is the province of grammar.

The faithful researches of learned grammarians have been studied and respected, but no one of those authors has been implicitly followed. Their every dictum has been subjected to two questions: — Is this so? Should it be so expressed? Whenever the traditional and conventional has proved a shackle, it has been cast aside, and freedom from such limitations asserted as the birthright of English, as of a language that has started anew and has now grown along new lines to the fulness of vigor and power.

The emancipation of English from the intricacies of "grammatical gender," that bind all other languages ancient or modern, is given special recognition. As has been well said, "The English language alone has made gender a rational and intelligible distinction." * This process which has abolished gender from the article and the adjective has proceeded further than is generally recognized in removing the limitations of gender from the noun and the pronoun, and this tendency is still at work. Within the past half-century "authoress" and "poetess" have gone the way of "warrioress" and "wagoness" of long ago. The endeavor has been to make the grammar in this respect as free as the language, so that the student shall be bound by no limitations that the language has cast aside.

At the same time great care has been taken not to introduce new terms, except in a few instances where it has been believed that greater clearness could be gained by so doing; and in every such case the conventional title has been given as a "substitute term," which any teacher may employ if after full examination he still prefers the old to the new. Also, these conventional terms have been used in their commonly accepted sense, as meaning what the general consent of grammarians has decided that they shall mean. Thus the student who has already made some study of grammar will not need to learn a new vocabulary in order to use this book.

With rare exceptions, the teacher and the student will find the conventional terms of English grammar running through this book, unchanged either in form or meaning, though with constant endeavor to give to the treatment of each a new simplicity and clearness.

For instance, the old "potential mode" is retained, not because it is old, but because it is a means of classifying certain associated forms of the verb that have never yet

* RAMSEY "The English Language and English Grammar," p. 231.

been so well disposed of in any other way. To dispense with the "potential mode" is to leave the phrases in *may*, *can*, *must*, *might*, *could*, *would*, and *should*, "hanging in the air," to be doubtfully rescued by the pupil as he may — or may not — be able to do. The use of the "potential mode" is a means of grouping these verb-phrases of possibility or necessity — as they should be grouped — in a single class under a definite name.

On the other hand two of the old "divisions of grammar," Orthography and Prosody, have been entirely dispensed with. Orthography, the spelling of words, has been left to the dictionary and the spelling-book, where, under the modern specialization of the departments of language-study, it properly belongs. Prosody, or versification, is a branch of the poetic art, and has no proper connection with grammar, which is " the study of words in their relations, as used for the expression of thought."

Hence, Grammar is treated in two divisions: I. The Parts of Speech, and II. The Building of the Sentence,— technically known as Etymology and Syntax.

In treating the parts of speech it has been the study to keep each, as far as practicable, constant to its own class. The English language often uses one part of speech with the construction of another, — a noun as an adjective, an adjective as a noun, etc. Thus, if we speak of "the Pennsylvania mountains," it is preferred to treat "Pennsylvania" as still a *noun*, though *used* (in this special instance) *as an adjective*. In this way the unity of each grammatical class is preserved, and it is believed that such unity conduces to simplicity.

The conjugations of the verbs have been expressed by a new method which brings each tense before the eye in a single line. This obviates the necessity of the parrot-like repetition of identical forms, while experienced teachers who have examined it believe that it will be better under-

stood and better remembered because of its compactness and the unity of the mental picture.

The distinction between *shall* and *will* has been very carefully explained, and better than all explanation, the two forms have been kept apart in all the conjugations, Such forms as "I *shall* or *will* go" have not been used, for when "I *shall* go" is right, "I *will* go" must be wrong, and vice versa. Thus the student will find a separate form for each separate use of these important auxiliaries.

Instruction by direct statement has been preferred to the "inductive method." The latter method has important uses, especially in the teaching of science, but grammar as the means of correct speaking and writing is a practical *art*, and in teaching such arts the method of direct instruction is universal. A boy goes into a carpenter's shop, and is at once taught the names of perhaps thirty tools, which he must retain by arbitrary memory. Then he is instructed how to use each tool for a specific purpose. He is not set to find out by experiment how a saw differs from a chisel, or either from a plane. But if the names and uses of thirty tools can be learned outright, it is not too much to ask the same pupil to learn in the same way eight parts of speech.

Incidentally the direct method has especial value in the use of the work as a book of reference when it is desired to verify some fact, or to settle some disputed point.

The author would express his thanks to many friends for suggestions and criticisms during the progress of the work, and especially to Francis Asbury Springer, A.M., formerly Professor of Latin, Greek, and English in Rock River Seminary, and a teacher of long experience in public and private schools in Washington, D.C., for valued aid in the preparation of the manuscript and revision of the proof.

J. C. F.

WASHINGTON, D.C.,
November, 1908.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

PART I.—THE PARTS OF SPEECH

PAGE

Definitions and Explanations 3

The Parts of Speech Named and Defined, 3; Parsing, 5; The Sentence, 7; How the Parts of Speech Make up the Sentence, 9.

The Noun 12

Definition, 12; Classes of Nouns, 14; Properties of Nouns, 15; Gender, 15; Person, 25; Number, 29; Case, 39.

The Pronoun 50

Definition and Use of the Pronoun, 50; Properties of Pronouns, 53; Classes of Pronouns, 54; Personal Pronouns, 55; Properties of Personal Pronouns, 56; Gender, 56; Person, 60; Personification in Pronouns, 62; Number, 63; Case, 65; Compound Personal Pronouns, 67; Special Uses of Personal Pronouns, 68; Demonstrative Pronouns, 70; Interrogative Pronouns, 72; Relative Pronouns, 75; Indefinite Pronouns, 78; Adjective Pronouns, 81.

The Adjective 86

Definition, 86; Classes of Adjectives, 87; Position of the Adjective, 88; Properties of Adjectives, 91; Comparison of Adjectives, 91; Modes of Comparison, 92; Uses of the Comparative and Superlative, 96; The Numerals, 99; The Article, 101; Position of the Article, 104; To Parse an Adjective, 105.

The Verb 108

Definition and Explanation, 108; Classes of Verbs, 110; Properties of Verbs, 114; Voice, 114; Mode, 115; Tense, 120; Person, 123; Number, 124; Participles, List of, 126; Conjugation, 129; Synopsis, 129; Principal Parts, 129; The Root-Form and Inflected Forms, 130; Verb-Phrases, 136; Conjugations of the Auxiliary Verbs, 137; Auxiliaries of the Future, 140; Distinction between *Shall* and *Will*, 141; Full Conjugations in the Active Voice, 150; The Passive Voice, 160; The Progressive Conjugation, 163; Negative and Interrogative Forms, 165; Uses of the Participles, 168; Irregular Verbs, 180; Verbs in Simplified Spelling, 184; The Ancient or Solemn Style, 185; Auxiliary Verbs, 188.

The Adverb 193

Definition and Use, 193; Classes of Adverbs, 194; Comparison of Adverbs, 198; Special Uses, Suggestions, and Cautions, 199.

PAGE

The Preposition 202

Definition and Use, 202; Distinctions, 205; Participial Prepositions, 205; Special Uses of Prepositions, 205; Prepositional Phrases, 206.

The Conjunction 208

Definition and Use, 208; List of Conjunctions, 208; Classes of Conjunctions, 208; Correlative Conjunctions, 210.

The Interjection 211

PART II. — THE BUILDING OF THE SENTENCE

The Sentence 217

Divisions and Definitions, 216; Simple and Compound Subjects, 219; Combinations of Subject and Predicate, 221; Subjects and Predicates Compared — Essential and Complete, 222; Elements of the Sentence, 226; Kinds of Sentences, 226.

The Simple Sentence 234

The Subject, 235; The Noun, 236; The Nominative Case, 236; The Possessive Case, 238; The Objective Case, 239; The Pronoun, 243; The Nominative Case, 243; The Possessive Case, 244; The Objective Case, 246; The Adjective, 250; The Verb, 254; The Infinitive, 254; The Participle, 258; The Adverb, 261; The Preposition, 264; The Conjunction, 269; The Interjection, 273; To Select the Essential Subject, 274; Forms to be Ruled out, 274; The Compound Subject, 276; The Predicate, 277; Parts of Speech in the Predicate, 278; The Noun, 278; The Nominative Case, 278; The Possessive Case, 279; The Objective Case, 279; Position of the Direct Object, 279; The Passive Construction, 282; Equivalents of the Noun, 284; The Pronoun, 284; The Nominative Case, 285; The Possessive Case, 285; The Objective Case, 286; Position of the Direct Object, 286; The Adjective, 289; The Verb, 291; The Copula — Copulative Verbs, 291; The Complement, 292; Agreement of the Verb, 293; Person, 293; Number, 294; To Select the Essential Predicate, 296; The Infinitive in the Predicate, 297; The Participle in the Predicate, 297; The Nominative Absolute, 298; The Adverb, 299; The Preposition, 300; The Conjunction, 301; The Interjection, 301.

Complex and Compound Sentences 307

The Complex Sentence, 307; Subordinate Conjunctions as Connectives, 302; *Than* as a Subordinate Conjunction, 303; Relative Pronouns as Connectives, 303; Use of *Who* or *Whom*, 304; Clauses as Elements, 306; The Compound Sentence, 308; Coördinate Conjunctions as Connectives, 309; To Analyze a Sentence, 310; The Inverted Construction, 311.

Appendix 315

Rules for the Spelling of English Words, 315; Pronouns and Antecedents, 317; Prepositions Listed and Discriminated, 320.

INTRODUCTION

STATEMENT AND DIVISION OF THE SUBJECT

Grammar is the treatment of words in their relations as used for the expression of thought.

There is no grammar of a mere list of words as given, for instance, in a dictionary. Grammar does not consider words except as used in connection with other words to express some meaning beyond that of the individual words.

Words as used for the expression of thought are divided into classes called Parts of Speech. A combination of words expressing a complete thought, as, "Man needs food," is called a Sentence.

Hence Grammar may appropriately be taught and studied under two divisions, viz.:

I. The Parts of Speech.
II. The Building of the Sentence.

That is all there is of grammar so far as the scope of this book is concerned.*

Substitute Terms. — The treatment of the Parts of Speech is technically called *Etymology*, and the discussion of the Building (or Construction) of the Sentence is called *Syntax*.

A Rule of Grammar is a statement of what is found generally true in the usage of the best speakers and writers.

* NOTE.— As a convenient aid to many students, a brief summary of RULES FOR THE SPELLING OF ENGLISH WORDS is given in the Appendix.

PART I

THE PARTS OF SPEECH

THE PARTS OF SPEECH

DEFINITIONS AND EXPLANATIONS

SECTION I

THE PARTS OF SPEECH NAMED AND DEFINED

Every language contains many words, each differing from every other either in meaning or usage. The words of the English language number more than three hundred thousand. But it is found that all these words can be arranged under eight classes or groups which are called Parts of Speech.

A Part of Speech is a class or group of words associated according to their meaning and use. A single word belonging to any one of these classes is also called a Part of Speech.

The division of words into the classes or groups so designated is not an invention or fiction of grammarians but is based upon real differences in the nature and use of the various words which seem to establish a general law of language. In Hebrew, Greek, Latin, Spanish, Italian, French, German, and other languages, as well as in English, every word can be assigned to a place under some one of these groups or divisions called Parts of Speech.

The Parts of Speech are the following:

I. The Noun	V. The Adverb
II. The Pronoun	VI. The Preposition
III. The Adjective	VII. The Conjunction
IV. The Verb	VIII. The Interjection

The following brief and simple definitions of these terms may here be given. Fuller definitions will be found under each part of speech in its own place.

I. A **Noun** is a word that names some object or idea. The noun may be the name of an external object such as we see, hear, or touch; as, *man*, *horse*, *dog*, *tree*, *river:* or it may be the name of something manifest only to the mind; as, *goodness*, *beauty*. The noun alone of all words *names* its object. Hence the noun may be called *a name-word.*

II. A **Pronoun** is a word that stands for a noun, or takes the place of a noun; as, *he*, *who*, *they*, *this*. A pronoun may be called *a substitute for a noun.*

III. An **Adjective** is a word that limits or describes a noun or pronoun; as, *good*, *hot*, *heavy*, *one*, *two*. An adjective may be called *a limiting or describing word.*

IV. A **Verb** is a word that expresses action. The verb does not *name* an object, like a noun, nor *describe* it, like an adjective; the verb tells what the object *is* or *does*.

The verb may be said to express state or action as a moving idea of the mind. Thus the verb gives life to language. A group of words, like "The good man," without a verb, tells nothing; we wait to know what is said about "the good man;" but a similar group of words with a verb, as "The man *is* good," fills out the thought and makes a complete statement. Hence the verb may be called *an action-word.*

V. The **Adverb** is a word that may be attached to a verb to vary the meaning in some way, as to make it stronger or weaker or, as we say, to modify it; as, to speak *briefly;* to run *fast*. Such words as *well*, *ill*, *badly*,

suddenly, *quickly*, etc., are adverbs. An adverb may also modify an adjective or another adverb; as, a *very* good man; work *rather* badly done. An adverb may be called *a modifying word.*

VI. A **Preposition** shows how some word called its *object* is related to some other word; as, The river flows *to* the sea; The moon shines *in* the sky. We may call the preposition *a relation-word.*

VII. A **Conjunction** is a word that connects other words or phrases or sentences to each other; as, *and*, *but*, *if*, *though*. A conjunction may be called *a connecting word.*

(There are other connecting words, as will be elsewhere explained, but the conjunction is the chief connective and is devoted altogether to that use. Hence it may have the title by preëminence.)

VIII. An **Interjection** is an exclamatory or exclaiming word; as, *oh! ah!*

SECTION II

PARSING

The word **Parse** is from the Latin *pars*, part, and refers primarily to describing a word as a *part* of speech.

To *parse* a word is to tell what part of speech it is, and what are its properties and its relations to other words.

We may also parse a sentence by separating it into its elements and telling the properties and relations of each word it contains.

The object of parsing should be to give all necessary particulars in the simplest possible statement that will adequately characterize the word or the sentence considered.

EXERCISE I

Tell the part of speech of each word in the following extracts.

The little dogs and all,
Tray, Blanche, and Sweetheart, see, they bark at me.
SHAKESPEARE *King Lear*, act iii, sc. 6.

Thou hast seen a farmer's dog bark at a beggar?
SHAKESPEARE *King Lear*, act iv, sc. 6.

Wood-pigeons cooed there, stock-doves nestled there;
My trees were full of songs and flowers and fruit.
CHRISTINA G. ROSSETTI *From House to Home*, st. 7.

There sits a robin on the old elm-tree,
And with such stirring music fills my ear,
I might forget that life had pain or fear.
ANNA MARIA WELLS *The Old Elm-Tree.*

Why, he stalks up and down like a peacock.
SHAKESPEARE *Troilus and Cressida*, act iii, sc. 3.

A cow is a very good animal in the field; but we turn her out of a garden.
SAM'L JOHNSON *Boswell's Life of Johnson*, 1772.

His faithful dog salutes the smiling guest.
CAMPBELL *Pleasures of Hope*, pt. i, l. 86.

The soul of this man is his clothes.
SHAKESPEARE *All's Well That Ends Well*, act ii, sc. 5, l. 45.

Tiger, tiger, burning bright
In the forests of the night,
What immortal hand or eye,
Could frame thy fearful symmetry?
WILLIAM BLAKE *The Tiger.*

So shows a snowy dove trooping with crows.
SHAKESPEARE *Romeo and Juliet* act i, sc. 5.

And behold there was a very stately palace before him, the name of which was Beautiful.
BUNYAN *Pilgrim's Progress*, pt. i.

A babe in the house is a well-spring of pleasure.
TUPPER *Of Education.*

SECTION III

THE SENTENCE

A **Sentence** has been already defined (Int., p. iii) as *a combination of words expressing a complete thought.*

A sentence must consist of at least two words, a *noun* (or its equivalent, as a *pronoun*) and a *verb;* as, Time *flies;* Henry *runs.* We might say that a sentence consists (1) of something spoken about, and (2) of what is said about it.* Thus in the sentence "Henry runs," "Henry" is the name of the person spoken about, and "runs" tells what is said about him.

The **Subject.** — The noun (or other word) that the verb belongs to or tells about is called the *Subject* of the sentence. Thus "Time" is the subject of the sentence "Time flies," and "Henry" is the subject of the sentence "Henry runs."

The **Predicate.** — The verb that tells something about the subject is called the *Predicate.* Thus "flies" is the predicate of the sentence "Time flies," telling something about "Time;" and "runs" is the predicate of the sentence "Henry runs," telling an act done by "Henry."

Few sentences are so simple as those just given. Some describing word (an adjective) may be applied to the subject; as, "The *little* boy runs." Or some modifying word (an adverb) may be applied to the verb; as, "The boy runs *fast.*" Thus the sentence may be extended so as to contain a great number of words.

The noun (or other word) to which the verb belongs, so that the verb could not have its proper meaning without it, is called the

* NOTE. — This statement is not given as a complete definition, but has explanatory value as helping to make the meaning clear. The Sentence will be fully treated in Part II. Here a few brief and general definitions are given for working purposes.

Essential Subject. The Essential Subject with all its associated words is called the *Complete Subject.* Thus in the sentence "The little boy runs," "boy" is the essential subject, and "The little boy" is the complete subject.

The verb that tells something about the subject, so that the sentence could not have its proper meaning without it, is called the *Essential Predicate.* The Essential Predicate with all its associated words is called the *Complete Predicate.* Thus in the sentence "The boy runs fast," "runs" is the essential predicate, and "runs fast" is the complete predicate.

The **Predicate Noun.** — After some verbs (as *be*, *seem*, etc.), a noun may be added referring back to the subject; as, George is a *boy.* This is called the *Predicate Noun*, or the *Predicate Nominative.**

The **Predicate Adjective.** — In the same way an adjective referring to the subject may be used after such verbs; as, George is *good.* This is called a *Predicate Adjective.**

The **Object of a Verb.** — Some verbs take a noun (or pronoun) after them to show the person or thing that the verb acts upon; as, The man struck the *boy;* The hammer broke the *glass.*

Such verbs are called *Transitive Verbs.* The noun telling what a transitive verb acts upon is called the Object of that verb. Thus in the sentences above given "boy" is the object of the transitive verb "struck," and "glass" is the object of the transitive verb "broke." Verbs which do not take an object are called *Intransitive Verbs*, as the verbs *be*, *become*, *laugh*, *look*, *rise*, and many others.

The object of a transitive verb is a part of the predicate and usually follows the verb. (For variations of order see EXCEPTIONS, p. 280.)

The sentence may be called the frame in which the

* NOTE. — See also COMPLEMENT, Part II, p. 292.

various parts of speech are set. The explanations thus far given will be sufficient for assigning the Parts of Speech to their proper places in the Sentence in this portion of the grammar.

EXERCISE 2

Point out the subject and predicate, essential and complete, of each of the following sentences; tell also the transitive and intransitive verbs, and point out the object of each transitive verb; also, each predicate noun or predicate adjective.

A proverb is one man's wit and all men's wisdom.
A crooked log makes a straight fire.
A rolling stone gathers no moss.
Every man is the architect of his own fortunes.
Facts are stubborn things.
Familiarity breeds contempt.
Forgiveness is better than revenge.
Fortune befriends the bold.
He touched nothing that he did not adorn.
Imitation is the sincerest form of flattery.

SECTION IV

HOW THE PARTS OF SPEECH MAKE UP THE SENTENCE

It is a remarkable fact that, while the words of a language are so many, their various uses are so few. Considered with reference to their uses and relations, all the words of the language range themselves, like the soldiers of an army, within the ranks of these eight divisions called parts of speech.

It is this simplicity of arrangement that makes grammar possible, whether considered as a science or as an art. In order to be good grammarians, we do not need to know what to do with three hundred thousand *words*, but only what to do with eight *classes of words*.

All speech, like all music, falls into octaves. We might represent each part of speech by a letter of the musical scale, thus:

A — Noun	E — Adverb
B — Pronoun	F — Preposition
C — Adjective	G — Conjunction
D — Verb	A′ — Interjection

Then any statement that could possibly be made in human speech could be represented by some grouping of the letters of this octave, just as all music that can be written or sung can be represented by some arrangement of the letters of the musical scale. Thus, let us represent by letters, as above, the little sentence,

God	is	good
A	D	C
Noun	Verb	Adjective

Then we may put any noun whatever in the place of A, and any verb whatever in the place of D, and any adjective whatever in the place of C. We may thus change the meaning of the sentence in the greatest variety of ways, and yet use only the same three parts of speech, noun, verb, adjective. The sentences we make may be even contradictory in meaning, but grammatically they will be all alike, so long as we use only these three parts of speech, noun, verb, adjective. Thus:

A	D	C
God	is	good
Man	is	mortal
Time	is	fleeting
Cæsar	was	ambitious
Talk	became	useless
Night	seems	black
Wisdom	is	profitable

These statements, so different in meaning, are all alike grammatically, each consisting of noun, verb, and adjective, — A, D, C.

These seven sentences contain twenty-one words, but grammatically they contain only three parts of speech, noun, verb, adjective. In order to know the grammar of these seven sentences with their twenty-one words, we need only know the grammar of three parts of speech.

Now we might go on and make long sentences containing all the parts of speech. Still, in order to know the grammar of those long sentences, we should not need to know all about the hundreds of words they might contain, but only all about the eight parts of speech.

So it will be seen that grammar is a very easy study if we go at it in the right way. We have only eight things to learn. When we know all about noun, pronoun, adjective, verb, adverb, preposition, conjunction, and interjection, we know all about grammar. When we have mastered the eight parts of speech that make up our grammatical scale, we can compass all the various melody of human language. All that we may ever have to speak, write, or read, in tens of thousands of words, will be but some varying arrangement of these eight parts of speech.

We will next proceed to study these parts of speech separately one by one.

EXERCISE 3

Write ten sentences like those given under A, D, C on p. 10, but using different words.

THE NOUN

SECTION I

DEFINITION

A **Noun** is the name of an object or idea.

The word noun is derived from the Latin *nomen*, name, designating a noun as a "name-word," — the word that *names* the object of thought.

Object is often understood to mean something in the world around us, that may be perceived by the senses: — what is often called "an external object." In this sense the word would be much too narrow in meaning, since a noun may be the name of something that exists only in the mind: — what is termed "a mental object." In this widest sense, it would be enough to say that "a noun is the name of an object." But since "object" is so often understood only in the narrower sense, there is an advantage in the use of the word "idea," because every one understands "idea" to include "mental objects," which are apprehended by the mind alone, as well as the images which the mind receives of "external objects."

Ancient philosophers imagined a man reclining at the far end of a dark cave, looking toward the entrance. Then any object that appeared at the entrance would make a picture in his mind, which he could see after the object itself had disappeared. He could still picture to himself the person or animal that had passed by, or the cloud he had seen floating across the sky. Such mental pictures they termed "ideas." Then any definite image the mind could form, though only within itself, came to be called an "idea." Thus an idea may be of something in the world around us, as *sun*, *moon*, *star*, *river*, *man*, *bird*, or of something wholly within the mind, as *love*, *honor*, *beauty*, *goodness*. Of whatever kind the idea may be, some noun stands as its name.

Every word expresses some idea, as the verb expresses an idea of action, or the conjunction expresses an idea of

connection. But the noun alone *names* its idea, and stands for it as its symbol in speech. The noun is the *name-word.*

SUBSTITUTE TERM

Substantive. — This is in some respects an excellent term, since the noun denotes what has substance, either in fact or in thought, so that nouns may be called the substance of speech, or its substantial part. Substantive is also frequently used as referring to a phrase or clause used like a noun.

EXERCISE 4

Point out the nouns in the following sentences.

The manly part is to do with might and main what you can do. — EMERSON *The Conduct of Life.*

> Our acts our angels are, or good or ill,
> Our fatal shadows that walk by us still.
> JOHN FLETCHER *An Honest Man's Fortune.*

Suit the action to the word, the word to the action. — SHAKESPEARE *Hamlet*, act iii, sc. 2.

Affection is the broadest basis of good in life. — GEORGE ELIOT *Daniel Deronda*, bk. v, ch. 35.

> I may not to the world impart
> The secret of its power,
> But treasured in my inmost heart
> I keep my faded flower.
> HOWARTH *'Tis but a Little Faded Flower.*

> Talk not of wasted affection, affection never was wasted;
> If it enrich not the heart of another, its waters, returning
> Back to their springs, like the rain, shall fill them full of refreshment;
> That which the fountain sends forth returns again to the fountain.
> LONGFELLOW *Evangeline*, pt. ii, st. 1.

> Age shakes Athena's tower, but spares gray Marathon.
> BYRON *Childe Harold*, can. ii, st. 88.

We do not count a man's years, until he has nothing else to count. — EMERSON *Society and Solitude.*

People will not look forward to posterity, who never look backward to their ancestors. — BURKE *Reflections on the Revolution in France*, p. 48.

Sweet souls around us watch us still,
  Press nearer to our side;
Into our thoughts, into our prayers,
  With gentle helping glide.
    HARRIET BEECHER STOWE *The Other World.*

SECTION II

CLASSES OF NOUNS

The chief division of nouns is into the two classes, Common and Proper.

A **Common Noun** is the name of any one of a class or group of objects; as, *man*, *woman*, *boy*, *girl*, *flower*, *horse*, *dog*, *tree*, *star*, *river*.

A **Proper Noun** is the name of a single object (or sometimes of a single group of objects); as, *God*, the *Deity*, *Galileo*, *Baltimore*, the *Potomac*, the *Romans*, the *Alps*.

A **Proper Noun** (in the old sense of *proper*, "one's own") may be called the *own* name of a person, place, or thing, — that which belongs to it for itself, and not as one of a class.

Yet, as every individual object does belong to some class, every proper noun has some common noun corresponding to it, indicating the class to which the object designated by the proper noun belongs; as, Boston — city; Mississippi — river; Virginia — state; Atlantic — ocean; George — man or boy. The proper noun thus serves to distinguish the particular or individual object from all other objects of the same class, which are designated by common nouns; as, The chief *river* (common noun) of South America is the *Amazon* (proper noun).

Common Nouns include Collective and Diminutive Nouns (or Diminutives).

Collective Nouns. — A Collective Noun is one that denotes by the singular form (see SINGULAR and PLURAL NUMBER, p. 29) a number of objects of the same kind; that is, a collective noun is singular in form but plural in meaning, as *class*, *family*, *congregation*, *flock*, *multitude*.

Diminutives. — A Diminutive Noun is a noun that is derived from another noun by making some change of form to express a smaller object than the one indicated by the noun from which it is derived; as, *duckling*, from duck; *sermonette*, from sermon; *streamlet*, from stream. Some diminutives are formed by a change of vowel, as well as by adding a special ending; as, *gosling*, from goose; *kitten*, from cat.

EXERCISE 5

Give the common noun corresponding to each of the following proper nouns.

(1) Chicago; (2) Wisconsin; (3) St. Helena; (4) Gibraltar; (5) Mediterranean; (6) Volga; (7) Germany; (8) Caspian; (9) Himalaya; (10) Hongkong; (11) Borneo; (12) Rhine; (13) Vesuvius; (14) St. Lawrence.

SECTION III

PROPERTIES OF NOUNS

Grammarians give to nouns the four properties of Gender, Person, Number, and Case.

I. GENDER

In the English language *Gender* is a distinction of words according as they indicate sex or the lack of it.

Gender in English grammar belongs only to nouns and pronouns.

Gender must be carefully distinguished from sex. Sex is a natural distinction of living beings. Gender is a grammatical distinction of words. There are but two sexes, male and female. But since both male and female may be distinguished from things without life that have no sex, there may be, as in English, three genders: — the *masculine gender* for words denoting male beings, the *feminine gender* for words denoting female beings, and the *neuter gender* (*neuter* meaning "neither") for words denoting inanimate objects, which are neither male nor female.

Thus the word *masculine* belongs to *gender*, while the word *male* belongs to *sex;* the word *feminine* belongs to *gender*, the word *female* belongs to *sex;* and the word *neuter*, which belongs only to *gender*, may be said to correspond to the word *sexless*, which applies to objects without sex. The two *sexes*, *male* and *female*, are set off against three *genders*, *masculine*, *feminine*, and *neuter*. For instance, the word "man," denoting a being of the *male sex*, is *masculine* in gender; the word "woman," denoting a being of the *female sex*, is *feminine* in gender; while the word "rock," denoting an object of *no sex*, is *neuter* in gender. Hence we derive the following rules.

Rules of Gender

There are in English three genders, masculine, feminine, and neuter.

1. **Masculine Gender.** — All nouns denoting beings of the male sex are masculine in gender.

2. **Feminine Gender.** — All nouns denoting beings of the female sex are feminine in gender.

3. **Neuter Gender.** — All nouns denoting objects of no sex are neuter in gender.

"English stands entirely alone in making gender a rational and intelligible distinction; males are masculine; females feminine; and inanimate things neuter." — RAMSEY *English Language and English Grammar*, pt. ii., ch. ii., p. 231.

APPARENT EXCEPTIONS

For the cases where inanimate objects are referred to by masculine or feminine pronouns, as if the objects were masculine or feminine, see PERSONIFICATION IN PRONOUNS, p. 62.

For the cases where animals and children are referred to by neuter pronouns, see THE INDETERMINATE NEUTER, p. 59.

It will be found that these are not real exceptions, since the gender of the noun is in either case unchanged.

Indications of Gender in Nouns

The three ways of indicating gender in nouns are the following:

1. Objects of the male sex are distinguished from those of the female sex by independent nouns, having no relation to each other. We may conveniently associate these words in pairs, because the objects to which they relate are commonly so associated, though the words, as words, are wholly unconnected, thus:

Masculine	*Feminine*	*Masculine*	*Feminine*
bachelor	spinster	king	queen
boy	girl	lord	lady
brother	sister	man	woman
bull	cow	master	mistress
cock	hen	monk	nun
drake	duck	nephew	niece
earl	countess*	ram	ewe
father	mother	sir	madam
gander	goose	son	daughter
husband	wife	uncle	aunt

To the list above given many other words might be added.

* NOTE. — Compare *count, countess*, in list under 3, p. 19.

This is the original and, as we may term it, the native English way, of denoting gender by independent and unrelated words, used to denote objects of different sex, and including those applied to the chief relations of life, as *father*, *mother*, *son*, *daughter*, *brother*, *sister*. In its chief word-pairs the English refers us not to the form, but to the meaning of the word; its primary gender-pairs are of unrelated words associated only by their signification.

There are other masculines and feminines that cannot be associated in pairs; as, the masculines *boor*, *clown*, *knight*, *satyr*, *squire*; and the feminines *amazon*, *dame*, *dowager*, *virago*. In these cases, also, the meaning is the only key to the gender.*

It should be added that some of the words in the list above given may be used without any indication of gender, to denote any animal of the species, of either sex, as *duck*, or in the plural *geese* and *hens*. *Horse* is sometimes used to denote a male, in distinction from *mare*, the female; but often, also, to denote any equine animal of either sex.

* NOTE. — Contrary to the usage in so many other languages, these native English words have nothing in their form to indicate gender. This is in accordance with the distinct tendency or "genius" of the English language, to have no identification of gender with word-forms. As will be readily seen, there is nothing more in the form of the word *man* to indicate gender than in the form of the word *pan*; no more in *boy* than in *toy*, in *girl* than in *pearl*, in *king* than in *ring*, in *mare* than in *care*. *Woman* is, indeed, a derivative of *man*, being from the Anglo-Saxon *wif*, wife, and *man*, man; but, even so, there is nothing in the present form of the word *woman* to indicate gender.

It is not the form but the meaning of the word that determines its gender. When we know the one, we know the other. *Wife* is not a feminine form of *husband*, nor *daughter* of *son*, nor *girl* of *boy*. Considered merely as words, *girl* is no more connected with *boy* than *girl* is connected with *bird*; *boy* is no more connected with *girl* than *boy* is connected with *king*. In each case the different word indicates a different being. In the special cases thus listed, we know by the meaning that the different words denote beings of different sexes, and hence the corresponding words of each pair are of different genders.

2. Gender is sometimes denoted by prefixing to the noun whose gender is to be indicated a noun or pronoun whose gender is known; as, *he*-goat, *she*-wolf, *man*-servant, *maid*-servant, etc.

This is also a native English usage, and is very old, but is fast going out. Modern speakers and writers prefer to use instead of such prefixes a descriptive adjective, *male* or *female;* as, a *male* zebra, a *female* elephant. The Scriptural terms "man-child" and "woman-child" are completely obsolete.

3. Certain endings of foreign origin are used to denote gender; as, *ess*, *ine*, and *trix*. These suffixes often involve some change in the form of the words to which they are added.

These are the only instances of true gender-forms in English, and as the suffixes themselves are of foreign origin, so the words to which they are added are, with rare exceptions, words derived from the French, Latin, or Greek. The instances are very few in which Anglo-Saxon words take these feminine endings, and then only by imitation of the Norman-French idiom. The only Anglo-Saxon words in the following list are *hunter* and *huntress*.

The chief nouns so modified are the following:

Masculine	*Feminine*
abbot	abbess
actor	actress
adventurer	adventuress
baron	baroness
benefactor	benefactress
count	countess*
duke	duchess
emperor	empress
enchanter	enchantress
governor	governess

* NOTE. — *Countess* is the feminine of *count* only in foreign titles. The English *countess* is the wife or widow of an *earl*. See list under 1 on p. 17.

Masculine	*Feminine*
host	hostess
hunter	huntress
Jew	Jewess
lion	lioness
marquis	marchioness
master	mistress
murderer	murderess
prophet	prophetess
protector	protectress
tiger	tigress
traitor	traitress
administrator	administratrix
executor	executrix
testator	testatrix
hero	heroine

REMARKS

1. While these forms seem somewhat numerous as listed, they are not so in ordinary use. One might go through a long life without having occasion to use the words *administratrix*, *executrix*, or *testatrix*, and many of the other words would enter but rarely into common speech or writing. Thus the *ess*, *ine*, and *trix* endings are not frequently used, and have no controlling influence as gender-forms.

2. No noun in English can be classed as masculine or feminine by simply noting its terminal syllable. The endings *ess*, *ine*, and *trix* do not necessarily form feminine nouns, for we have *access*, *address*, *compress*, *distress*, *duress*, *fortress*, *mattress*, *redress*, *success*, *doctrine*, *marine*, *quarantine*, *cicatrix*, *matrix*, which are all of the neuter gender, except *marine*, which, as denoting a sea-soldier, is masculine. Thus the feminine forms with these endings need to be learned like all others, by learning their meaning, which is the only key to the gender.

3. There is a strong tendency to the disuse of even these feminine endings. They were formerly far more numerous in English than now. In the time of Queen Elizabeth such words as *butleress*, *championess*, *vassaless*, *wagoness*, and *warrioress* were used, which

have long since disappeared. Others are constantly falling into disuse. It is not now good form to say or write *authoress*, *poetess*, nor *songstress*. We refer to the woman, like the man, as *author*, *lecturer*, *poet*, *singer*, etc. The genius of the language tends strongly to the disuse of all distinctively masculine or feminine terminations. We even speak of a woman as the *chairman* of a meeting, or as a *postmaster* in the United States mail service.

Nouns Indeterminate in Gender

There is a class of nouns like *friend*, *neighbor*, *stranger*, *citizen*, *patriot*, *assistant*, *helper*, etc., that unquestionably denote living beings, but give no indication of sex. If a person says, "My *friend* started for home yesterday," it is impossible to judge from that statement whether the "friend" was man or woman, boy or girl. But we cannot say that the noun "friend" is of no gender, or of neuter gender, like "rock" or "tree." The noun "friend" simply waives the question of gender, makes no affirmation about that matter, but leaves the gender undetermined or indeterminate.

The phrase "indeterminate in gender" — which fitly describes these nouns — is not meant to indicate a fourth gender but to denote a class of nouns which designate living beings without giving any indication of gender. It is desirable that these nouns should be classed under some grammatical name, and the name "indeterminate" exactly describes their gender relations. Gender is not denied of these nouns, but which gender they may have is not determined, — that is, the gender is left "indeterminate."

The great majority of English nouns that denote living beings are indeterminate in gender; as, *buyer*, *doer*, *driver*, *hearer*, *reader*, *doctor*, *orator*, *visitor*, *antagonist*, *artist*, *copyist*, *evangelist*, *advocate*, *attorney*, *clerk*, *lawyer*, *monarch*, *sovereign*, *acquaintance*, *cousin*, *friend*, *relative*, *relation*, and most names of animals, as *bear*, *bird*, *butterfly*, *elephant*, *monkey*, *mule*, *ostrich*, *swallow*, and innumerable others. Probably there are not more than one hundred and fifty true gender

nouns now in use. The fullest list of unrelated word-pairs contains only about seventy such words, while the nouns with feminines in *ess* or *trix* do not probably number more than seventy-five now in approved use. It will be seen that these are incalculably outnumbered by the nouns denoting living beings without specifying gender, of which the list given in this paragraph furnishes but a few specimens.

This is in accordance with the genius of the English language, which has banished gender from the adjective, including the article (see ADJECTIVE, p. 91), and is still dropping distinctive feminines in *ess*, saying *author* and *poet* in place of *authoress* and *poetess*, etc. The entire tendency of the English language is to banish from its grammar all distinctions of gender except where such distinction is absolutely necessary. This is a great advantage on the score of freedom and simplicity.

RULE. — A noun that denotes a living being without indication of sex is indeterminate in gender.

SUBSTITUTE TERM

Common Gender. — This designation has been used for nouns whose gender is indeterminate, and has done excellent service. It has, however, been objected to by many grammarians, partly as seeming to indicate a *fourth gender*, and partly as seeming to imply that such a noun was *both* masculine and feminine. The name "indeterminate gender" is here preferred, as indicating more exactly what is meant, and leaving the matter in no possible doubt.

REMARKS

Gender of Nouns not affected by Pronouns.—A noun indeterminate in gender may be followed by a pronoun of either the masculine or the feminine or in some cases of the neuter gender; as, My friend missed *his* train; My friend left *her* gloves; The child was crying for *its* mother.

In such case the gender of the noun is still to be given as *indeterminate*. From the pronoun we know more about *the person referred to*, but the *noun* "friend" or "child," considered as a noun, remains as incapable of telling gender as before; as a noun it is still "indeterminate in gender." The following pronoun carries an indication of gender that is *not* in the noun. From the pronoun we learn the *sex* of the person referred to as a "friend," but *as a part of speech* the pronoun cannot transfer its gender to the noun, nor give to the noun a gender which as a noun it does not contain. Thus we may say:

My *friend* started for home { but missed *his* train.
but left *her* gloves.

In either case the gender of the noun "friend" is indeterminate, because nothing in the noun itself indicates gender when either of the bracketed clauses is added, more than if the clause with "friend" stood alone, — "My friend started for home." From either added statement we know more about *the person referred to*, but there is no change in the *noun*, which tells no more of gender than it ever did; and there never has been a rule that a noun must agree with its pronoun in gender.

The same thing is true in cases of personification, where a masculine or feminine pronoun referring back to a neuter noun cannot change the gender of that noun. The neuter is still to be recognized as neuter, but invested in thought, for the time being, with masculine or feminine qualities. (See PERSONIFICATION, p. 27.)*

In every case the gender of a noun is determined altogether by its meaning by and for itself alone. The gender of each noun is to be settled where that noun is found, and to stay settled, — independently of the gender of any pronoun or other word that may follow or refer to it.

* NOTE.—This treatment of the matter will undoubtedly be a surprise to many students and teachers who have learned a different method. But who ever will give this system a fair trial will find a wonderful gain in simplicity, clearness, and consistency, and an abolition of much of the mystery of grammar, when the attempt is no longer made to play fast and loose with the gender of nouns because of following pronouns,—a method that has long been a fruitful source of confusion and perplexity.

EXERCISE 6

Tell the gender of each noun in the following extracts.

Up the airy mountain,
  Down the rushy glen,
We daren't go a-hunting
  For fear of little men;
Wee folk, good folk,
  Trooping all together,
Green jacket, red cap,
  And white owl's feather.

ALLINGHAM *The Fairies.*

The character, the counsels, and the example of our Washington, — they will guide us through the doubts and difficulties that beset us; they will guide our children and our children's children in the paths of prosperity and peace, while America shall hold her place in the family of nations. — EDWARD EVERETT *Washington Abroad and at Home.*

Now came still evening on; and twilight gray
Had in her sober livery all things clad;
Silence accompanied; for beast and bird,
They to their grassy couch, these to their nests,
Were slunk, all but the wakeful nightingale.

MILTON *Paradise Lost*, bk. iv, l. 598.

For a man seldom thinks with more earnestness of anything than he does of his dinner. — SAMUEL JOHNSON *Piozzi's Anecdotes.*

So nigh is grandeur to our dust,
  So near is God to man,
When Duty whispers low, *Thou must,*
  The youth replies, *I can.*

EMERSON *Voluntaries*, st. 3, l. 13.

The fisher droppeth his net in the stream,
  And a hundred streams are the same as one;
And the maiden dreameth her love-lit dream;
  And what is it all when all is done?
The net of the fisher the burden breaks,
And always the dreaming the dreamer wakes.

ALICE CARY *The Lover's Diary.*

II. PERSON

Person, in grammar, denotes a relation of words by which they indicate (1) The object or objects speaking; (2) The object or objects spoken to; (3) The object or objects spoken of.

Person, in grammar, belongs only to nouns, pronouns, and verbs.

It will be seen that "person," as a grammatical name, has a meaning very different from that of "person" in common speech. "Person," as commonly used, signifies a living, intelligent being, as a man, woman, or child. We might distinguish "person" in this ordinary sense as "a real person," and in the grammatical sense we might term it the "grammatical person."

According to the definition given in the opening paragraph we have naturally in grammar *three persons*, as follows:

First Person. — The object or objects *speaking;*
Second Person. — The object or objects *spoken to;*
Third Person. — The object or objects *spoken of.*

Convenient memory phrases for these three *persons* will be:

1. *Speaking;* 2. *Spoken to;* 3. *Spoken of.*

Examples

First Person. — "I, *John*, tell the truth."
Second Person. — "*John*, tell the truth."
Third Person. — "*John* tells the truth."

Remarks

1. **Nouns used with or without Pronouns of Person.** — An English noun cannot be used in the *first person* without a pronoun of that person accompanying it. If, for instance, we omit the pronoun

"I" in the sentence, "*I*, John, tell the truth," we have left, "John, tell the truth," which would be understood as spoken *to* "John," and hence in the *second person* and not the *first*.

In the *second person* a pronoun of that person may be used or not, according to circumstances. The noun may be used without any other word, as when we call "William!" or "Henry!" We may add any word of exclamation, as, "O, Robert!" or a verb in the imperative use, as, "Robert, come here!" There are other uses where the pronoun of the *second person* cannot be omitted, as in the sentence "To *you*, men, I call," where, if we omit the pronoun, the sentence would read, "To men I call," where *men* would be understood as in the *third person* and not in the *second*.

In the *third person* a noun is never, in the best usage, accompanied by a pronoun of that person. "The man *he* told me" is altogether inadmissible, though such expressions were formerly allowed, and may be found in some ballads or other poems of the older style.

Thus nouns are used in the different persons as follows:

In the *first person*, never without a pronoun (*I* or *we*);

In the *second person*, either with or without a pronoun (*thou* or *you*);

In the third person, always without a pronoun (*he*, *she*, or *it*).

For further explanation of this usage, see PRONOUNS, p. 60.

2. The term *person* indicates no change or difference whatever in the *form* of the noun. The noun "John" in the three sentences given above is precisely the same in each. But in each it holds a different *relation* to the other words in the sentence. *Person*, in grammar, is the name of that *relation*. In the first example, "John" is of the *first person*, because John speaks. In the second example, "John" is of the *second person*, because John is spoken to. In the third example, "John" is of the *third person*, because John is spoken of.

Hence, to know the *person* of an English noun, we have simply to ask whether it indicates who or what is speaking (*first person*), whom or what is spoken to (*second person*), or whom or what is spoken of (*third person*).

3. A noun is never used in the *first person singular* except in very solemn or formal style, as in the Scriptures, "I, *Paul*, say unto you," or in a legal document, "I, *Thomas Jones*, hereby give and bequeath, etc." Ordinarily the speaker or writer is not supposed to need to give his own name. In the *first person plural* a noun may be used either in the formal style, as, "We, *the people*, hereby ordain, etc.," or in the most informal and offhand way, as, "We *boys* are going fishing."

4. The vast majority of nouns in common speech or writing are of the *third person*, and unless there is something to show clearly that a noun is of the *first* or *second*, it is always understood to be of the *third person*.

PERSONIFICATION IN NOUNS

Personification is a figure of speech by which things without life are introduced as speaking, or are spoken of or to, as if they were persons.

The following are examples of such use:

What ailed thee, O thou *sea*, that thou fleddest? thou, *Jordan*, that thou wast driven back? — *Ps.* 114: 5.

Here the *sea* and the river *Jordan* are spoken to as if they could hear and understand; hence these nouns are in the *second person* by personification. Personification affects nouns grammatically only in the first or second person.

There is another form of personification in nouns which has no effect grammatically and hence is rather a matter of rhetoric than of grammar. Of this the following is an example:

The *mountains* and *hills* shall break forth before you into singing, and all the *trees* of the field shall clap their hands. — *Isa.* 55: 12.

Here *mountains*, *hills*, and *trees* are spoken of as if persons able to "sing" and "clap their hands," — an instance of striking poetic imagery; but grammatically these nouns have the same construction that they would have in any event, being in the *third person*, as nouns denoting things without life usually are. Such rhetorical personifi-

cation has no effect upon the grammatical use of the words, and need not be considered grammatically.

For personification as affecting the use of pronouns, see PERSONIFICATION IN PRONOUNS, p. 62.

EXERCISE 7

Tell the person of each noun in the following extracts.

The elephant hath joints, but none for courtesy; his legs are legs for necessity, not for flexure. — SHAKESPEARE *Troilus and Cressida*, act ii, sc. 3.

> Thou villain base,
> Know'st me not by my clothes?
>
> SHAKESPEARE *Cymbeline*, act iv, sc. 2.

> Sweet babe, in thy face
> Soft desires I can trace,
> Secret joys and secret smiles,
> Little pretty infant wiles.
>
> BLAKE *A Cradle Song.*

I, Themistocles, have come to you. — *Translation.*

> O rose, the sweetest blossom,
> Of spring the fairest flower, —
>
> PERCIVAL *Anacreontic*, st. 2.

I, Paul, have written it with my own hand. — *Philemon* 19.

> Come, Sleep: O Sleep! the certain knot of peace,
> The baiting-place of wit, the balm of woe,
> The poor man's wealth, the prisoner's release.
>
> SIR PHILIP SIDNEY *Astrophel and Stella*, st. 39.

That ye may be mindful of the commandment of us, the apostles. — 2 *Peter* 3:2.

> Lo, sifted through the winds that blow,
> Down comes the soft and silent snow,
> White petals from the flowers that grow
> In the cold atmosphere.
>
> BUNGAY *The Artists of the Air.*

Young Oak! when I planted thee deep in the ground,
I hoped that thy days would be longer than mine;
That thy dark-waving branches would flourish around,
And ivy thy trunk with its mantle entwine.

BYRON *To an Oak at Newstead.*

For I, the Lord thy God, will hold thy right hand, saying unto thee, Fear not; I will help thee. — *Isa.* 41:13.

The word impossible is not in my dictionary. — NAPOLEON I.

III. NUMBER

Number is that property of certain words by which they indicate whether *one object* is meant or *more than one.*

Only *nouns, pronouns,* and *verbs* have the property of number.

There are in English *two numbers,* the *singular* and the *plural.*

The *singular number* is used to denote *one* object (i.e. one person or thing); the *plural* to denote *more than one.*

Regular Plurals

RULE. — English nouns form their plurals by adding *s* or *es* to the singular.*

This rule is so universal that when there is nothing to indicate the contrary the plural of an English noun may be instantly formed by adding *s* or *es* to the singular, and this will be right in thousands upon thousands of cases. (The exceptions to this rule, which are few in number, and mostly in words derived from foreign languages, are noted on p. 32.)

Choice of s or es

1. **Plurals that add *s* only.** — When a noun ends in a letter whose sound will readily unite with the sound of *s,*

* NOTE.—The change of form in nouns to denote the plural is one of the few instances of *inflection* in the English language. INFLECTION is a change in the form of a word to denote gender, person, number, case, comparison, voice, mode, tense, etc.

s only is regularly added to form the plural; as, *boy, boys; book, books; top, tops; time, times; engine, engines.*

2. **Plurals that add *es*.** — When a noun ends in a letter whose sound will not readily unite with the sound of *s*, *es* is added to form the plural, the *e* being inserted before the *s* for the sake of euphony, or agreeableness of sound; as, *fox, foxes; church, churches; bush, bushes.* Some other nouns also form plurals in *es*, though not according to a uniform rule.

Nouns Forming Plurals in es Classified

The nouns that form their plurals by adding *es* to the singular may be grouped in the following classes:

(1) Nouns that end in soft *ch* (*ch* as in *ch*urch), *s*, *sh*, *x*, or *z*. In these nouns the *es* forms a separate syllable; as:

box	*boxes*	*fox*	*foxes*
bush	*bushes*	*gas*	*gases*
church	*churches*	*match*	*matches*

(2) Some nouns ending in *f* or *fe* change *f* to *v* in the plural and add *es*, the *es* or *ves* not forming a separate syllable; as:

beef	*beeves*	*loaf*	*loaves*
calf	*calves*	*self*	*selves*
elf	*elves*	*sheaf*	*sheaves*
half	*halves*	*shelf*	*shelves*
knife	*knives*	*thief*	*thieves*
leaf	*leaves*	*wife*	*wives*
life	*lives*	*wolf*	*wolves*

Staff has an old plural *staves*, but *staffs* is now more common. *Wharf* forms its plural either in *wharves* or *wharfs*, the latter being now somewhat more frequent.

Other nouns in *f* or *fe* form their plurals by adding *s* only; as: *chief, chiefs; safe, safes; strife, strifes.*

(3) Some nouns in *o*, chiefly those that have been long in the language and have become familiar English words; as:

cargo	*cargoes*	*potato*	*potatoes*
echo	*echoes*	*tomato*	*tomatoes*
grotto	*grottoes*	*torpedo*	*torpedoes*
hero	*heroes*	*veto*	*vetoes*
negro	*negroes*	*volcano*	*volcanoes*

Here the *es* does not form a separate syllable, but the ending *oes* is pronounced *ōz*.

More recent words in *o* commonly form their plurals by simply adding *s;* as:

albino	*albinos*	*folio*	*folios*
bronco	*broncos*	*halo*	*halos*
cameo	*cameos*	*piano*	*pianos*
canto	*cantos*	*soprano*	*sopranos*
embryo	*embryos*	*studio*	*studios*

Calico has either *calicoes* or *calicos*.

For this difference in treatment of nouns in *o* no certain rule can, however, be given. Forms not included in the lists above given must be learned one by one from a good dictionary.

(4) Some nouns ending in *y*, according to the following rule:

Nouns ending in *y* preceded by a consonant change *y* to *i* and add *es* to form the plural; as:

berry	*berries*	*folly*	*follies*
body	*bodies*	*lady*	*ladies*
daisy	*daisies*	*lily*	*lilies*
fancy	*fancies*	*story*	*stories*

(In this respect *qu* is treated as a consonant combination, equivalent to *kw;* as, *colloquy, colloquies; soliloquy, soliloquies.*)

Nouns ending in *y* preceded by a vowel add *s* only to form the plural and do not change the *y;* as:

boy	*boys*	*key*	*keys*
chimney	*chimneys*	*valley*	*valleys*
donkey	*donkeys*	*volley*	*volleys*

(*Money* forms its plural *moneys*, according to this rule; but the exceptional plural *monies* is also in use.)

A memory line may be: *y* preceded by a vowel, plural adds *s* only; *y* preceded by a consonant, plural in *ies*.

Irregular Plurals

Exceptional or irregular plurals are the following:

1. Plurals in *en*. — This Old English plural ending was once very common. It now survives only in three nouns in general use, viz.: *brother*, *brethren* (see also p. 34); *child*, *children; ox*, *oxen*. *Kine*, which was formed by adding *en* to *ky*, the old plural of *cow* (thus making a double plural, with slight change of spelling), is found in Scripture and occasionally in poetry.

2. Plurals by Change of Internal Vowel.— This was also common in Old English. Only eight words now form their plurals in this way, viz.:

dormouse	*dormice*	*man*	*men*
foot	*feet*	*mouse*	*mice*
goose	*geese*	*tooth*	*teeth*
louse	*lice*	*woman*	*women*

3. Plurals of Foreign Form. — Words derived from other languages often retain their foreign plurals in our language. Some, however, take the English plural only, some the foreign plural only, and some take both. No fixed rules can be given for forming such plurals, but the following statements may be of assistance:

(1) The ending *a* may be changed to *æ* or *ata;* as:

alumna	*alumnæ*	*minutia*	*minutiæ*
formula	*formulæ*	*vertebra*	*vertebræ*
larva	*larvæ*	*miasma*	*miasmata*

(2) The ending *us* may be changed to *i;* as:

alumnus	*alumni*	*nucleus*	*nuclei*
fungus	*fungi*	*radius*	*radii*
hippopotamus	*hippopotami*	*terminus*	*termini*

(3) The ending *on* or *um* may be changed to *a;* as:

arcanum	*arcana*	*medium*	*media*
bacterium	*bacteria*	*memorandum*	*memoranda*
datum	*data*	*phenomenon*	*phenomena*
erratum	*errata*	*stratum*	*strata*

(4) The ending *is* may be changed to *es* or *ides;* as:

analysis	*analyses*	*ephemeris*	*ephemerides*
apotheosis	*apotheoses*	*oasis*	*oases*
axis	*axes*	*parenthesis*	*parentheses*
basis	*bases*	*synopsis*	*synopses*
crisis	*crises*	*thesis*	*theses*
ellipsis	*ellipses*	*aphis*	*aphides*

NOTE. — *Ephemerides*, denoting geometrical tables, is to be distinguished from *Ephemeridæ*, denoting a family of insects (Mayflies).

(5) The ending *x* or *ex* may be changed to *ces* or *ices;* as:

apex	*apices*	*radix*	*radices*
appendix	*appendices*	*vertex*	*vertices*
cortex	*cortices*	*vortex*	*vortices*

(6) A few Hebrew plurals in *im;* as, cherub*im*, seraph*im* (sometimes with *s* erroneously added, — cherub*ims*, etc.).

Nouns Unchanged in the Plural

Some nouns, especially certain names of animals, are the same in both singular and plural; as, *cod*, *deer*, *fish*, *grouse*, *sheep*, *salmon*, *swine*, *trout*. (For the plural of *fish*, see also DOUBLE PLURALS, p. 34.)

Certain words denoting a quantity, measure, weight, or the like are used in the singular after a numeral; as, *brace*, *couple*, *dozen*, *gross*, *head*, *pair*, *score*, *yoke*. Thus we may say "three *dozen* eggs;" "five *pair* of shoes;" "twenty *head* of cattle;" "four *yoke* of oxen." *Sail* when used to denote a ship may retain the same form in the plural as denoting ships; as, "a fleet of twenty *sail*." *

* NOTE. — This usage is now but a remnant of an older style. "The number of words so used is much less than formerly, and tends to diminish; 'three *pairs* of shoes' would by very many persons be preferred to 'three *pair*.'" — *Standard Dictionary, Appendix, Faulty Diction*, Article PLURALS.

Nouns with Double Plurals

Some nouns have both a regular and an irregular plural, with a difference in meaning. Thus:

bandit..... { *bandits* (individuals);
banditti (an organized or collective force);

brother..... { *brothers* (of the same family);
brethren (of the same society);

cannon..... { *cannons* (separate pieces of artillery);
cannon (a quantity considered collectively);

cherub..... { *cherubs* (individuals);
cherubim (a number considered collectively);

die..... { *dies* (stamps for coining, etc.);
dice (small cubes used in games);

fish..... { *fishes* (counted one by one);
fish (considered by quantity, species, or the like);

genius..... { *geniuses* (men of exalted intellect);
genii (spirits);

heathen..... { *heathens* (individual persons);
heathen (heathen people collectively);

index..... { *indexes* (tables of items);
indices (mathematical signs, etc.);

memorandum { *memoranda* (items noted down);
memorandums (separate lists of items);

penny..... { *pennies* (pieces of money);
pence (quantity or value).

Pronunciation of Final s in Plurals

Whether the final *s* of the plural shall be pronounced as *s* or as *z*, and whether the plural ending shall form an additional syllable, may be determined by the following rules:

1. **Final s sounded as s, not forming an additional syllable.**—If a noun ends with the *sound* (however spelled) of *f*, *k*, *p*, *t*, or of *th*

pronounced as in *th*in, the added *s* has the proper *s* sound, and does not make an additional syllable; as, chie*fs*, sa*fes*, sera*phs*, ta*cks*, ca*ps*, ca*pes*, ma*ts*, ma*tes*, no*tes*, bir*ths*, leng*ths*, wid*ths*.

Exceptions. — The pronunciation of some plurals in *ths* is disputed, even when the singular ends in the sound of *th* as in *th*in. Thus the plurals of *bath*, *lath*, *path*, and *truth* are pronounced by different authorities either as ba*ths* or ba*dhz*, la*ths* or la*dhz*, pa*ths* or pa*dhz*, tru*ths* or tru*dhz*.

2. **Final *s* sounded as *z*, not forming an additional syllable.**— If a noun ends with the sound (however spelled) of *any vowel*, or of *b*, *d*, *g* "hard" (as in *egg*), *l*, *m*, *n*, *ng*, *th* "flat" (as in *th*en, la*th*e), or *v*, the added *s* makes no additional syllable, but has the sound of *z;* as, *days*, *eyes*, *hoes*, *brows*, *boys*, *tubs*, *floods*, *spades*, *bags*, *eggs*, *balls*, *falls*, *spoils*, *chimes*, *times*, *lines*, *signs*, *tunes*, *bangs*, *songs*, *bars*, *wars*, *lathes*, *braves*, *eaves*.

3. **Final *s* sounded as *z* and making an additional syllable (written *es*).** — If a noun ends in the sound (however spelled) of *ch*, *j*, *s*, *sh*, or *x*, the added sign of the plural makes another syllable, written *es*, and the final *s* is pronounced as *z*. (This is true even when the final *es* results from the adding of *s* to mute *e* in such nouns as in *face*, *faces*, etc.)*

Plurals of Compounds

Most compound nouns are expressed in the plural number by making plural only that part of the word which is described by the rest.

Thus in *mouse-trap* the essential thing is the *trap;* it is some kind of *trap;* the *mouse* tells what kind, — a trap adapted for a mouse; we do not think it necessary to say that it might catch more than one mouse; hence we make the plural not

* Note. — It should be remarked that a noun may have a plural in *es* when *s* only has been added, — that is, if the singular ends in *e;* in that case the adding of *s* will form the ending *es*, which may or may not be pronounced as a separate syllable (see 2 and 3); as, *time*, *times; machine*, *machines; muse*, *muses; fuse*, *fuses*.

mice-traps but *mouse-traps.* Similarly, we have ***arm-chairs, foot-stools, ox-carts, wagon-loads.***

Compounds expressing legal relationships pluralize only the part expressing the essential relation; as, *brothers-in-law, daughters-in-law, fathers-in-law, mothers-in-law, sisters-in-law, sons-in-law;* but *stepbrothers, stepchildren, stepdaughters, stepfathers, stepmothers, stepsisters, step-sons.*

Similarly, nouns that are compounds of a noun with any descriptive word or phrase pluralize only the noun; as, *hangers-on, lookers-on, men-of-war.*

Where a compound noun is made of words that are not nouns, the plural formative is put at the end of the whole word; as, *forget-me-nots, go-betweens, three-per-cents.*

Nouns denoting quantity, as those ending in *ful*, pluralize the whole term; as, *armful, armfuls; cupful, cupfuls; handful, handfuls; spoonful, spoonfuls.**

In certain compounds of French origin in which the adjective follows the noun it was formerly the rule to pluralize the noun only; as, *court-martial, courts-martial; knight-errant, knights-errant;* but it is now good usage to write *court-martials, knight-errants,* etc. The plural of *major-general* is written only *major-generals.*

In accordance with the same tendency, foreign compounds of which the parts are not separately understood by an English reader pluralize the whole word; as, *piano-forte, piano-fortes; porte-monnaie, porte-monnaies; têtê-à-têtê, têtê-à-têtês.*

* NOTE. — In such terms we are thinking not of the containing vessel but of the quantity it contains. A *teaspoonful* is not a *teaspoon filled.* We are not thinking of the spoon but of the amount that is in it, and we can get a *teaspoonful* without a spoon by carefully dropping sixty drops; that is the amount that would fill a teaspoon. To measure twenty *teaspoonfuls* we do not need twenty spoons, and we are not thinking of twenty spoons, but of twenty times the quantity that would fill one. Hence we say not twenty *teaspoons full* but twenty *teaspoonfuls.*

A few compounds have both parts made plural; as, *knight-templar, knights-templars; man-servant, men-servants; woman-servant, women-servants.*

The pluralized part of a compound word is made plural in the same way as if it stood alone; *bookcase, bookcases; horseman, horsemen; workman, workmen.*

(It is to be observed that *Brahman, Burman, German, Mussulman, Ottoman,* and *talisman* are not compounds of *man,* and hence do not change the last syllable to *men* but form the plural by adding *s* to the singular, — *Brahmans, Burmans, Germans, Mussulmans, Ottomans, talismans.* But *Dutchman, Frenchman, Norseman,* and *Northman* are compounds of *man,* and their plurals are *Dutchmen, Frenchmen, Norsemen,* and *Northmen.* *Norman* is from the Danish *nord,* north, and *mand,* man, but came into English ready-made, and hence makes its plural not *Normen* but *Normans.* Thus from closely similar origins we have Norsemen and Northmen, but *Normans.*)

Plurals of Titles

When the title *Mr., Miss,* or *Dr.* is used with a name, the whole term is pluralized by making plural the title only; as, *Mr. Harper, the Messrs. Harper; Miss Brown, the Misses Brown; Dr. Lee, the Drs. Lee.* In commercial use "the" is commonly omitted, giving *Messrs. Harper, Drs. Lee, Drs. Simpkins* and *Thompson,* or the like.

In using the title *Mrs.* to designate two or more married ladies, the proper name should be pluralized; as, the *Mrs. Barlows.* But in using the title *Misses* to designate two or more unmarried ladies of the same name the proper name should not be pluralized; as, *the Misses Barlow.*

Plurals of Letters, Numerals, etc.

Letters, figures, and other characters are made plural by annexing *s* preceded by an apostrophe; as, the *a's* and *n's* in the first line; the 5's and 7's, etc. The apostrophe is added to prevent ambiguity or uncertain meaning. Thus "Dot your *i's*" is quite different from "Dot your *is*;" "5*s*" might mean 5 shillings. The apostrophe prevents mistake. The plurals of names of words are, however, com-

monly formed by simply adding *s;* as, "Take care of your *ands* and *buts;*" "We will take the *pros* and *cons.*" The apostrophe is sometimes used in such expressions, though it is more commonly omitted.

Plurals Treated as Singulars

Some nouns plural in form are singular in meaning and use; as, *means*, *news*. Thus we say "The latest news *is* —" *Means*, referring to one thing or one method, is treated as a singular, and we say "No other means *is* possible;" *means*, referring to a number of things or methods, may be plural, and we may say "All other means *have* been tried in vain."

A noun plural in form, when it denotes a collection, group, or amount, is treated as a singular taking a singular verb or being referred to by a singular pronoun; as, "*That hundred dollars* is here."

EXERCISE 8

Give the number of each noun in the following extracts; give the plural of every noun that is here found in the singular, and the singular of every noun that is found in the plural; also the rule for the formation of all plurals here used.

Though men determine, the gods do dispose.

GREENE *Perimedes.*

See the mountains kiss high heaven,
And the waves clasp one another.

SHELLEY *Love's Philosophy.*

I read
Of that glad year that once had been,
In those fallen leaves which kept their green,
The noble letters of the dead:
And strangely on the silence broke
The silent-speaking words.

TENNYSON *In Memoriam*, pt. xcv.

O, there be players that I have seen play, and heard others praise . . . that having neither the accent of Christians, nor the gait of Christian, pagan, nor man, have so strutted and bellowed that I have thought some of nature's journeymen had made men and not made them well, they imitated humanity so abominably. — SHAKESPEARE *Hamlet*, act iii, sc. 2.

There let the pealing organ blow
To the full-voiced choir below,
In service high and anthems clear,
As may with sweetness through mine ear
Dissolve me into ecstasies,
And bring all heaven before mine eyes.

MILTON *Il Penseroso*, l. 161.

No shade, no shine, no butterflies, no bees,
No fruits, no flowers, no leaves, no birds,
November!

HOOD *November*.

No sadder proof can be given by a man of his own littleness than disbelief in great men. — CARLYLE *Heroes and Hero Worship*, lect. 1.

Then take me on your knee, mother,
And listen, mother mine,
A hundred fairies danced last night,
And the harpers they were nine.

MARY HOWITT *The Fairies of the Caldon Low*, st. 5.

IV. CASE

Case in English grammar denotes such a relation of a noun or pronoun to other words as to indicate (1) The person or thing acting; (2) The person or thing possessing; (3) The person or thing acted upon.

The only words that have case in English are nouns and pronouns.

(In this section the cases of nouns only will be considered.)

There are in English *three cases*, which are named as follows:*

1. The *Nominative Case*, denoting the person or thing *acting;*

2. The *Possessive Case*, denoting the person or thing *possessing;*

3. The *Objective Case*, denoting the person or thing *acted upon.*

The person or thing *acted upon* is often called the *object* of the action, whence the *case* denoting that is called the *objective case*, that is, the *case* of the *object.*

Case, in English nouns, involves no change of form except in the *possessive.*

The Nominative and Objective Cases

Whether a noun is in the *nominative* or the *objective case* can be known only by the connection of thought, and this is commonly indicated *by the order of the words.* The *nominative* ordinarily *precedes*, and the *objective* ordinarily *follows its verb.*

Thus, "*Cromwell* conquered *Charles;*" in this sentence we at once understand that *Cromwell* was the conqueror and *Charles* the conquered. If we were to reverse the order and say "*Charles* conquered *Cromwell*," we should exactly reverse the meaning and make *Charles* the conqueror and *Cromwell* the conquered, — which would not be true. Reversing the order of the words would reverse

* NOTE. — The definitions above are given for *English grammar* only, because they are for the most part true of *English grammar* only. Some languages have many *cases*, all different in form. Often the change of form is so great that any one who knew only the original form of the noun could not find the derived *case*-form in the dictionary unless he knew the grammar of the language to tell him how that form might be made. From all such complications the English language is free.

the truth of history. In the sentence as first given, *Cromwell* is the actor, the subject of the verb, and so in the *nominative case;* at the same time *Charles* is the object of the action, the object of the verb, and so in the *objective case.*

Wherever found, the *nominative* and the *objective case* can be distinguished from each other only by the *connection of thought,* which is usually indicated by *the order of words* in the sentence. (This will be fully explained in Part II, POSITION OF THE DIRECT OBJECT, pp. 279–280; compare p. 286.)

The Possessive Case

The possessive case of a noun is denoted by the ending *s* with the apostrophe ('); the apostrophe preceding the *s* in the singular and following the *s* in the plural.

The few and rare exceptions to this rule will be hereafter noted.

In the singular number, the *possessive case* is formed by adding *'s* to the nominative singular; as, boy, *boy's;* horse, *horse's;* sailor, *sailor's.*

(The apostrophe takes the place of an omitted letter, the Old English having formed the *possessive* by the ending *es, is,* or *ys.*)*

In the plural number, the *possessive case* is formed by simply adding the apostrophe to the final *s* when, as is usual, the plural ends in *s* or *es;* as, boys, *boys';* horses, *horses';* sailors, *sailors'.*

Possessives of Compounds. — The *possessive* of a compound word is formed by adding *'s* at the end of the entire word; as, my *father-in-law's* house.

* NOTE. — In the seventeenth century an odd belief prevailed that the *s* of the possessive was a contraction of *his.* So able an author as Addison was misled by this idea, writing "Ulysses *his* bow" (*Guardian,* 98) and "Socrates *his* rules" (*Spectator,* 207). Dryden wrote in his Coronation Ode, "better to be lost in Charles *his* name." It would seem evident at a glance that this explanation could not fit the use of *s* after feminine nouns. The error was simply an outgrowth of the defective scholarship of that age.

Possessives of Groups of Words. — Names of firms or societies, or other groups of closely associated words, form the *possessive* by adding *'s* at the end of the whole expression; as, *Liddell and Scott's* Lexicon; the *American Tract Society's* publications.

If the associated names indicate joint possession, the sign of the *possessive* is added only at the end of the last name; as, *Lincoln and Seward's* correspondence, — that is, a collection of letters that passed between Lincoln and Seward. If separate possession is indicated, the sign of the *possessive* follows each name; as, *Lincoln's and Seward's* correspondence, — that is, a collection of Lincoln's letters, and also one of Seward's, to or from any person or persons whatever.

An Equivalent for the Possessive. — The *possessive case* of any noun is ordinarily exactly equivalent to the phrase formed by the preposition *of*, followed by the same noun; as, *Tennyson's* poems or the poems *of Tennyson.*

This enables us often to avoid objectionable repetition or disagreeable combinations of words. Thus, instead of saying or writing "*The Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge's* publications," we have as the preferred form "The publications *of the Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge.*" We are never driven to use a clumsy or difficult *possessive* in *'s*, because we can always employ instead the form with *of*, which is at times much more elegant.

It should be observed, however, that the form with *of* may at times be ambiguous, as the *possessive* cannot be. Thus "The desertion *of his friend*" may imply either that he deserted his friend or that his friend deserted him, while "His *friend's* desertion" can mean only that his friend deserted him. There are passages in Scripture where "the love *of God*" may mean either the love which God feels toward man or the love which man feels toward God. "*God's* love" could mean only the love which God cherishes. In using the form with *of* we should be careful that it does not have a doubtful meaning.

A Double Possessive. — Sometimes the form in *'s* is combined with the form with *of*, making a double possessive. Thus we say "That check *of Thompson's*,"

where "That *Thompson's* check" would be awkward, and "That check *of Thompson*" would seem rather flat. We prefer the *possessive* at the end of the phrase, even though it combines two forms, and this mode of expression has become an accepted English idiom.

Pronunciation of the Possessive. — The rules given (p. 34) for the pronunciation of final *s* in plurals apply equally to the various forms of the possessive case.

Where the final *s* of the plural is pronounced as *z*, the final *s* of the possessive is so pronounced; as, *kings*, *king's*, *kings'*; *engines*, *engine's*, *engines'*.

Where the final *es* of the plural makes a separate syllable, the final *'s* of the possessive singular does the same; as, *foxes*, *fox's*. Compare the plural and the possessive in the following sentences:

Foxes are very cunning. The *fox's* cunning is great.

It is quite impossible for the ear to distinguish "foxes" in the first sentence from "fox's" in the second.

The possessive of plurals in *s* is of course pronounced the same as the nominative plural, the added (') making no change; *horses* being to the ear the same as *horses'*.

Exceptions

1. In some few instances the *s* of the *possessive singular* is omitted and the apostrophe only is added, especially

(*a*) When the singular of the noun ends in a hissing sound, while the following word also begins with a hissing sound; as, "for *conscience'* sake;" "for *Jesus'* sake."

(*b*) When the singular is a word of many syllables, so that the added syllable with *'s* would have a disagreeable effect; as, "*Themistocles'* services to the Athenians." "*Themistocles's* services" would be possible but harsh and objectionable in sound.

(*c*) When the singular ending in *s* is a word of but one or two syllables, no exception is commonly made. Thus we say "*Jones's* woods;" "*Dickens's* novels."

2. The few nouns whose plurals do not end in *s* or *es* form the *possessive plural* by adding *'s* to the plural form; as, "the *men's* meetings;" "the *children's* shoes;" "the *oxen's* feet."

REMARKS

In spoken language it is not always possible to distinguish the *possessive singular* from the *plural form*. Commonly the connection makes the meaning clear. Thus, if we say "The *horse's* head was turned toward home," that will at once be distinguished from "The *horses'* heads were turned toward home," since we know without pausing to think of it that the singular "head" can apply to but one horse, while the plural "heads" must belong to more than one. But if we read aloud the two sentences, "The *horse's* feet were sore" and "The *horses'* feet were sore," the hearer cannot observe any difference. It is an advantage to have the two forms clearly distinguished in the written or printed style. For the spoken language, if there is any danger of confusion, we shall do well to employ the form with *of* and say "*of the horse*" or "*of the horses*."

RULES OF CASE IN NOUNS

I. The Nominative Case:

RULE 1. — A noun which is the subject of a finite verb or of a sentence is in the nominative case; as, The *sun* shines. This is called the *Subject Nominative*.

RULE 2. — A noun in the predicate, corresponding to the subject and meaning the same thing as the subject, or explaining or adding to the meaning of the subject, is in the nominative case; as, Grant was a great *general*. This is called the *Predicate Nominative*.*

* NOTE. — For the expressions "subject complement," "attribute complement," etc., see Part II, p. 292. The term "predicate nominative" is here preferred as simpler and sufficient for the purpose.

RULE 3. — A noun attached to the subject by way of explanation or emphasis is in the nominative case by apposition (see p. 46); as, The chief, an old *man*, arose slowly. This is called the *Nominative by Apposition.*

RULE 4. — A noun used in direct address is in the nominative case; as, *Charles*, bring me your book. This is called the *Nominative of Direct Address.*

RULE 5. — A noun used without direct connection with any verb, to express an independent idea, is in the nominative case; as, The *hour* having arrived, the meeting was opened. This is called the *Nominative Absolute.*

II. The **Possessive Case:**

RULE 6. — A noun expressing possession, origin, source, or other close relation, is in the possessive case; as, my *father's* house; the *man's* character; the *nation's* history.

Where several nouns form one possessive phrase, with the *s* of the possessive added only to the last (p. 42), each noun preceding the last is also in the possessive case, but with the sign of the possessive omitted; as, *Liddell* and *Scott's* Lexicon.

III. The **Objective Case:**

RULE 7. A noun used as the object of a verb, forming what is called the direct object, is in the objective case; as, He repelled the *intruder*. This may be called the *Objective after a Verb.**

RULE 8. — A noun used as the object of a preposition, showing from what the idea of the preposition starts, or

* NOTE. — For the *indirect, secondary*, and other objects, which are also in the objective case, see PART II, pp. 286–288.

to what it is directed, is in the objective case; as, from *Boston;* in *London;* to *New York.* This may be called the *Objective after a Preposition.*

RULE 9. — The subject of a verb in the infinitive mode is in the objective case; as, He forbade the *stranger* to approach. (See p. 119.)

RULE 10. — A noun which is in apposition with the object of a verb or of a preposition is in the objective case; as, Miltiades defeated Xerxes, the Persian *emperor.* This may be called the *Objective by Apposition.*

IV. **Apposition** * (applying also to pronouns):

RULE 11. — A noun used to limit, explain, expand, or emphasize the meaning of another noun denoting the same person or thing, is put by apposition in the same case (nominative, possessive, or objective); as, Cæsar, the *conqueror,* entered Rome in triumph.

Apposition is from the Latin *ad,* to, at, or near, and *pono,* place, and thus denotes that a certain word is *placed next to* another. Thus:

Washington, the *commander-in-chief,* was present;

Washington, who was present, was *commander-in-chief.*

The meaning of the two sentences is nearly the same; but in the first sentence "commander-in-chief" is placed *next* to the subject, while in the second sentence other words intervene. Hence the predicate nominative is not in *apposition* with the subject.

A noun which is in apposition with another noun, or with a pronoun, is called an *appositive.*

EXERCISE 9

Give the case of every noun of Exercise 4, p. 13.

* NOTE. — A pronoun is rarely an appositive of a noun, but often takes a noun in apposition with itself.

SECTION IV

To Parse a Noun. — State:

1. That it is a noun, and why;
2. Proper or common, and why;
3. Gender, and why;
4. Person, and why;
5. Number, and why;
6. Case, and why;
7. Relation to other words;
8. Rule of construction.

Examples †

I. The *father* was a *teacher*.

father is a noun, because it is the name of an object; a common noun, because it denotes one of a class of objects; masculine gender, because it denotes an object of the male sex; third person, because it denotes an object spoken of; singular number, because it denotes one individual; nominative case, because the subject of the sentence (or of the verb *was*). Rule 1.

teacher is a noun, because the name of an object; a common noun, as denoting one of a class of objects; indeterminate in gender, as denoting a living being without indication of sex; third person, as denoting an object spoken of; singular number, as denoting one individual; nominative case, as being a predicate noun corresponding to "father," the subject of the sentence. Rule 2.

* Note. — It will be readily perceived that the exercises in this book may be multiplied indefinitely when desired by using some of the earlier exercises for later features, guarding, of course, against the use of any one so frequently as to make even the best extracts tiresome by repetition.

Another method may be to ask the pupils to write out and bring in choice extracts from books accessible to them in home or public library, illustrating a section they have just studied. Such individual selection has many advantages.

† Note. — These forms may be much condensed or abridged by pupils who have acquired facility, provided that all important items are mentioned or clearly understood.

II. *John's* book is on the *shelf*.

John's is a noun, because it is the name of an object; a proper noun, because the name of a particular individual; masculine gender, because it names an object of the male sex; third person, because spoken of; singular number, because it denotes but one; possessive case, because it denotes the possessor. Rule 6.

shelf is a noun, as the name of an object; common, as denoting one of a class of objects; neuter gender, as denoting an object without sex; third person, as spoken of; singular number, as denoting but one; objective case, as the object of the preposition *on*. Rule 8.

III. Henry has recited his *lesson*.

lesson is a noun, as the name of an object; common, as denoting one of a class of objects; neuter gender, as denoting an object without sex; third person, as spoken of; singular number, as meaning but one; objective case, as the object of the transitive verb *has recited*. Rule 7.

EXERCISE 10

Parse every noun in the following extracts.

On his bold visage middle age
Had slightly pressed its signet sage,
Yet had not quenched the open truth
And fiery vehemence of youth;
Forward and frolic glee was there,
The will to do, the soul to dare.

SCOTT *Lady of the Lake*, can. i, st. 21.

God Almighty first planted a garden.

BACON *Essays of* GARDENS.

We are our own fates. Our own deeds
Are our doomsmen. Man's life was made
Not for men's creeds,
But men's actions.

OWEN MEREDITH *Lucile*, pt. ii, can. v, st. 8.

Look, in this place ran Cassius' dagger through. — SHAKESPEARE *Julius Cæsar.*

Talk to him of Jacob's ladder, and he would ask the number of steps.— DOUGLAS JERROLD *A Matter-of-Fact Man.*

O, it is excellent
To have a giant's strength, but it is tyrannous
To use it like a giant.
SHAKESPEARE *Measure for Measure*, act ii, sc. 2.

Virtue's a stronger guard than brass.
EDMUND WALLER *Epigram.*

Integrity of life is fame's best friend,
Which nobly beyond death shall crown the end.
JOHN WEBSTER *The Duchess of Malfi*, act v, sc. 5.

Words are men's daughters, but God's sons are things.
SAMUEL MADDEN *Boulter's Monument.*

Sound, sound the clarion, fill the fife!
To all the sensual world proclaim,
One crowded hour of glorious life
Is worth an age without a name.
SCOTT *Old Mortality* (head of chapter).

Thus Wallace's party grew daily stronger. — SCOTT.

Just sense and sober piety still dictate
The Countess's command.
WALPOLE.

The gorgeous palanquin of the prince (in India), the close litter of the noble lady, — all these things were to him as the objects amid which his own life had been passed, as the objects which lay on the road between Beaconsfield and St. James's Street. . . . He had just as lively an idea of the insurrection at Benares as of Lord George Gordon's riots. — MACAULAY Essay on *Warren Hastings.*

The chambers in the house of dreams
Are fed with so divine an air,
That Time's hoar wings grow young therein,
And they who walk there are most fair.
FRANCIS THOMPSON *Dream Tryst*, st. 3.

THE PRONOUN

SECTION I

DEFINITION AND USE OF THE PRONOUN

A **Pronoun** is a word used in place of a noun.

The word *pronoun* expresses this meaning by its derivation. It is from the Latin words *pro*, for, and *nomen*, noun.

The pronoun is used in place of a noun in two different ways:

1. As a substitute for some definite noun which might be put in its place. The noun needs a substitute. If we were to repeat one noun as often as its meaning recurs, such a style would be clumsy and tedious. We should then have sentences like the following:

"The son told the son's mother that the son loved the son's mother."

Evidently we need some symbol that will suggest the meaning of the noun without repeating it every time. Here the pronoun comes in as a convenient substitute for the noun. Thus the sentence above given becomes

"*The son* told *his* mother that *he* loved *her*."

The sentence in the latter form is not only pleasanter to read or hear but easier to understand, because we do not seem to be always starting over again as when the noun is repeated over and over. The pronoun carries on the thought in a lighter and easier way. The pronoun is the great labor-saving contrivance of language.

The **Antecedent.** — The word for which a pronoun stands, or to which it refers back, is called the *antecedent.*

(*Antecedent* is from the Latin *ante*, before, and *cedo*, go, signifying "that which goes before.")

The antecedent of a pronoun is ordinarily a noun, but may be another pronoun; as, Here is *the man who* called you; It is *he who* called.

2. As taking the place and having the effect of a noun, without being a substitute for any definite noun, expressed or understood.

Thus in the phrase "it rains" no noun can be thought of for which "it" is a substitute. We cannot say, "the weather rains," "the sky rains," "the atmosphere rains," or the like. "It" is not a substitute for any particular noun, but *holds a place such as a noun might hold*, as the subject of a verb, maintaining the form of the sentence. In such case the pronoun has no antecedent.

Remarks

1. The pronoun "I" never has an antecedent. The pronoun "I" represents the *idea* of the speaker's personality; it stands for an *idea*, just as independently as a noun might do, but differs from a noun in the fact that it does not *name* the speaker; it *represents* without *naming* him. Ten thousand men with ten thousand different names might each use the pronoun "I," while no one of them could use the *name* of another as applying to himself.

Savages and little children often speak of themselves by their own names; as, "Indian hungry;" "Tommy want drink water." Such sentences, if filled out, must be in the third person. We do better and make more elegant sentences by using the pronoun "I" without the name and speaking in the first person.

2. A pronoun may be used without an antecedent when it is itself the antecedent of another pronoun. Thus we may say either

"*The man who* spoke these words is present" or "*He who* spoke these words is present."

In the first sentence above given the noun "man" is the antecedent of the pronoun "who;" in the second sentence the pronoun "he" is the antecedent of the pronoun "who," — while "he" itself has no antecedent but represents a person not previously mentioned but afterwards described by the relative clause beginning with "who." Such forms of expression are very common.

3. The pronoun *what* never has an antecedent, but combines within itself the powers of antecedent and relative (see p. 77). Thus "Take *what* you want" is equivalent to "Take *that which* you want."

4. An interrogative pronoun, as a rule, has no antecedent; we ask just because we do not know any definite object to refer to; as, *Who* owns that property?

In all cases where no antecedent can be given, the pronoun stands independently, just as a noun might do, differing from a noun only in representing *without naming* the object for which it stands.

EXERCISE II

Select all the pronouns in the following extracts.

The present is our own; but while we speak,
We cease from its possession, and resign
The stage we tread on to another race,
As vain and gay and mortal as ourselves.

T. L. PEACOCK *Time*, l. 9.

And let him be sure to leave other men their turns to speak.

BACON *Essays, Of Discourse.*

And I will trust that He who heeds
  The life that hides in mead and wold,
Who hangs yon alder's crimson beads,
  And stains these mosses green and gold,
Will still, as He hath done, incline
His gracious care to me and mine.

WHITTIER *Last Walk in Autumn*, st. 26.

No person who is not a great sculptor or painter can be an architect. If he is not a sculptor or painter, he can only be a builder.

RUSKIN *The True and the Beautiful, Sculpture.*

But let the good old corn adorn
The hills our fathers trod;
Still let us, for his golden corn,
Send up our thanks to God.

WHITTIER *The Corn-Song.*

The highest compact we can make with our fellow is, — Let there be truth between us two forevermore. — EMERSON *Essays, Behavior.*

For friendship, of itself a holy tie,
Is made more sacred by adversity.

DRYDEN *The Hind and the Panther*, pt. iii, l. 47.

SECTION II

PROPERTIES OF PRONOUNS

Pronouns have the same properties as nouns, viz., *gender*, *person*, *number*, and *case*. (See THE NOUN, pp. 15–47.)

These properties are the same for pronouns as for nouns, and the definitions given under the noun need not here be repeated. It will be found that some pronouns represent these properties of gender, person, number, and case more perfectly than any noun (see PERSONAL PRONOUNS), while in other pronouns the same qualities are very imperfectly represented.

Rules of Case for Pronouns. — Turn to "Rules of Case for Nouns" (pp. 44–46), and substitute "pronoun" for "noun" in each rule, and some pronoun for each italicized noun in the illustrative examples. It is recommended as a valuable exercise that these rules be thus written out by each pupil.

Agreement of Pronoun and Antecedent. — In highly inflected languages, like the Greek and Latin and many others, the following rule is practically universal:

RULE 1. — A pronoun must agree with its antecedent

in gender, person, and number. In English this rule is subject to certain limitations, as follows:

1. If the gender, person, and number both of an antecedent and of the pronoun referring to it are indicated, the pronoun must agree with its antecedent in these particulars (with certain exceptions, as of *you* referring to a singular antecedent and of *it* referring to an antecedent that denotes a living being).

2. If the gender, person, and number of the noun are not indicated, these properties are not to be invented for the noun because found in a connected pronoun.

3. If the gender, person, and number of a pronoun are not indicated (as in the case of the pronoun *who*), the pronoun should be called "indeterminate" in these respects, — as it is. But if the gender, number, and person of the antecedent are known, when those of the pronoun are not indicated, we may say in parsing that the pronoun is "used as of such or such gender, person, and number as found in its antecedent."

SECTION III

CLASSES OF PRONOUNS

Pronouns may be divided into six classes or groups, as follows:

Classes	Pronouns
1. Personal Pronouns	*I*, *thou*, *he*, *she*, and *it;*
2. Demonstrative Pronouns	*this* and *that;*
3. Interrogative Pronouns	*who*, *which*, *what;*
4. Relative Pronouns	*who*, *which*, *what*, and *that* (*as*, *but*)
5. Indefinite Pronouns	*another*, *any*, *each*, *either*, *none*, etc.
6. Adjective Pronouns	*this*, *that*, *any*, *each*, *which*, *what*, etc.

These classes, with their differences in form and use, will be treated each by itself in the following pages.

Class I. Personal Pronouns

A Personal Pronoun is one that shows by its form whether the *person speaking*, the *person spoken to*, or the *person or thing spoken of* is referred to.

For example, *I* represents the *person speaking; thou* or *you* the *person spoken to;* while *he, she,* or *it* represents the *person or thing spoken of.*

Declensions of Personal Pronouns

In the Personal Pronouns we have the most perfect examples of *inflection* in the form of *declension* now remaining in the English language. These will, undoubtedly, always remain the same as now, while so many other *inflections* have passed or are even now passing away.

These *declensions* are as follows:

	First Person		Second Person	
	Indeterminate Gender		Indeterminate Gender	
	Singular	*Plural*	*Singular*	*Plural*
Nom.	I	we	thou	you (ye)
Poss.	my, mine	our, ours	thy, thine	your, yours
Obj.	me	us	thee	you

Third Person

	Singular			*Plural*
	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter	Indeterminate Gender
Nom.	he	she	it	they
Poss.	his	her, hers	its	their, theirs
Obj.	him	her	it	them

Form of the Pronoun as a Guide in Parsing

It will be seen by the declensions above given that often all the properties of a personal pronoun — gender, person, number, and case — are fully indicated by its form, while in all cases some of these properties are so

indicated. Hence arises an important rule of parsing, viz.:

RULE 2. — When the gender, person, number, or case, or all those properties of a pronoun *are indicated by its form* (as in the personal pronouns), it should be stated that they are so indicated, saying, for instance, "*He* is a pronoun of the masculine gender, third person, singular number, and nominative case, *as shown by its form.*"

We know those facts at a glance, even if we know nothing about the connected words; and in many sentences all that we know of gender, person, and number for that sentence we learn by the *form* of the personal pronoun. That reason is important enough to be always given, and it is often the only reason that can be given.

PROPERTIES OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS

I. GENDER

The pronouns of the first and second persons, singular and plural, and the plural of the third person are indeterminate in gender.

Gender among pronouns is directly expressed only by three personal pronouns, and by these only in the third person and singular number.

RULE 3. — A personal pronoun expressing gender must agree in gender with the noun which is its antecedent when the gender of that noun is known.

REMARKS

1. Often the use of the pronoun is the only reason for paying any attention, *grammatically*, to the gender of the noun. If we have a sentence without a pronoun, we may change the gender of the nouns as much as we please without affecting the *grammar*. The *meaning* of the sentence will of course be changed by any change of words, but the *grammatical relations* of the new words may be precisely the same as those of the old.

Take the sentence "The man requires proper food." Now we may use a *noun* of a different gender without affecting the grammar of that sentence. We may say, "The *woman* requires proper food" or "The *tree* requires proper food," and the gender of the *noun* does not matter at all as far as the grammar is concerned, for the other words still remain the same. We may group the three sentences in one statement thus:

$$\text{The} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{man} \\ \text{woman} \\ \text{tree} \end{array} \right\} \text{requires proper food.}$$

The *meaning of the sentence* will be affected according to the noun we choose, but the *grammatical relations of the words* will not be changed in the slightest degree.

But now let us put one little personal pronoun before "food" and see what happens: — "The man requires *his* proper food."

Can we still go on making our changes as before? Evidently not. If we use the pronoun "his," we can use but one of the listed nouns, "man," and can form but one sentence out of that group of words. If we change "his" to "her," we are still limited to one sentence, but a different one, and to one noun, but a different one. We must now say, "The woman requires *her* proper food."

If again we change "her" to "its," we can use only the third noun and say, "The tree requires *its* proper food."

Grouping the three sentences once more we have:

$$\text{The} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{man} \\ \text{woman} \\ \text{tree} \end{array} \right\} \text{requires} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{his} \\ \text{her} \\ \text{its} \end{array} \right\} \text{proper food.}$$

If now we take the noun in the top, middle, or bottom line as the subject, we must use the pronoun on the same line, and that pronoun only, as referring to that subject. This is what is meant by a pronoun agreeing with its antecedent in gender.

2. The pronoun may indicate gender when the noun does not. It often happens that a noun gives no indication of gender, as the nouns *friend, child, editor*, etc. (See NOUN, p. 21.) Yet we may know the sex of the person referred to, and so, when we come to use

the pronoun, may use the masculine or feminine form, as the case requires. Thus we may say,

"My *friend* left this morning, but missed *his* train."

In such use the pronoun does not go back and give gender to the noun. The noun "friend," as a noun, is indeterminate in gender as much as before. We know more about the *person referred to*, but we have not changed *that noun*. We are content to have the pronoun tell the whole story of gender. We know the friend was of the male sex, because the pronoun is masculine. It is the pronoun alone that tells us anything about it. In such case there is no agreement of the pronoun with its antecedent in gender, because the antecedent tells nothing of gender. All that we know of the gender is what the pronoun tells us. Hence we have the following rule:

RULE 4. — A personal pronoun in the masculine, feminine, or neuter gender may refer to an antecedent which is indeterminate in gender.

That is to say, the gender of the pronoun *depends upon the meaning to be expressed*. When the antecedent definitely indicates the gender, that settles it for the pronoun, and the pronoun has only to *agree with its antecedent* in gender. When the antecedent gives no indication of gender, there is *no question of agreement*, but the pronoun *settles its own gender*, simply according to the meaning intended, and is masculine, feminine, or neuter on its own account to express that intended meaning. Thus the pronoun may have a gender of its own without depending upon any noun, and we should say in parsing that such a pronoun is masculine, feminine, or neuter because it denotes an object of the male sex, of the female sex, or of no sex.

There are no other words in English that have gender, or are concerned with gender, except nouns and pronouns, and for both these, as we have now seen, all questions of gender are to be settled by the meaning to be expressed.

Special Uses In Gender

(*a*) The **Indeterminate Masculine.** — The third person singular masculine of the personal pronoun is often used to refer indifferently to persons of either sex; as, If any

one returns the ring *he* will receive a reward; it being understood that the "he" may apply indifferently to man or woman, boy or girl.

This obviates the necessity of saying in all such cases, "he or she," "him or her," "his or her;" as, "*He* or *she* will receive a reward;" "A reward will be given to *him* or *her;*" "*His* or *her* kindness will be appreciated." The "he," "his," or "him" *continues grammatically masculine*, but is understood to apply indifferently to a person of either sex, and should be parsed as of the "masculine gender, *used indeterminately* to indicate a person of either sex."

(*b*) The **Indeterminate Neuter.** — The neuter of the personal pronoun has the peculiar use, in many instances, of simply dismissing gender from consideration. We refer to a child or an animal, for instance, by the pronoun *it* or *its*, not as implying that the individual referred to has no sex but simply that we do not know or do not care about the sex. Thus we say,

"The *child* was crying for *its* mother."
"The hunter shot the *bird* and broke *its* wing."

Here "child" and "bird" do not become *neuter*, since each denotes a living being; each of these nouns is indeterminate in gender, and we use *it* or *its* in a peculiar sense as also indeterminate in gender. We might call *it* or *its* so used "the non-committal neuter," meaning that it wholly waives all question of gender.

If we are particularly interested in the child or the bird, we generally refer to it by a masculine or feminine pronoun. In describing Raffael's beautiful picture, "The Madonna of the Chair," we should say, "The child Jesus in the arms of *his* mother." Or if we knew the bird to be a mother-bird, we might say, "*She* was carrying food to *her* nestlings." The neuter pronoun simply says that we do not know or are not interested to refer to the gender.

Gender Connections of the Possessive. — It is very important to observe that the gender of the English possessive is *always that of the possessor, never that of the thing possessed;* as, The mother loves *her* son. Though *son* is masculine, the feminine possessive *her* is attached to it as a modifier, because the possessive takes the gender of its antecedent, not that of the object possessed.

EXERCISE 12

Give the gender of every personal pronoun in Exercise 11, p. 52.

II. PERSON

Personal pronouns and verbs are the only words in English that indicate person by change of form. (Compare VERB, p. 123.)

The forms of personal pronouns for the several persons have been sufficiently indicated in the table of DECLENSION OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS (p. 55).

The following items should be carefully noted, viz.:

Personal Pronouns used with or without Nouns

1. The pronoun of the first person singular, nominative case, is always expressed by a capital "I," whatever its place in the sentence or whatever its connection with other words. Other forms of the pronoun of the first person, singular or plural, and the pronouns of the second and third persons are never capitalized unless when one of them is used at the beginning of a sentence or is for some other reason made especially prominent.

2. The pronoun of the *first person* must always be expressed.* A noun can never be used in the *first person* without a pronoun of the

* NOTE. — An exception is often made in business letters, and constantly in telegrams, where the subject of the verb is wholly omitted; as, "*Sent* you yesterday one bale, etc." This is a conventional business abbreviation, but has no effect to change the rule.

first person accompanying it. This is true both in the singular and in the plural. Thus in the sentence "*I*, Thomas, am your brother," if we omit the "I" we have, "Thomas am your brother," which would be an impossible English construction, instantly felt to be ridiculous. In the sentences "*I*, your brother, arrived yesterday," "*We*, men, make the laws," "You must deal with *me*, the attorney," if we omit the "I," "we," and "me" we have sentences in the *third person* instead of the *first*, namely: "Your brother arrived yesterday," "Men make the laws," "You must deal with the attorney."

3. The pronoun of the *second person* may be expressed or omitted according to circumstances. Thus:

Pronoun Expressed	Pronoun Omitted
You, my friends, listen to me!	My friends, listen to me!
You, boys, come here!	Boys, come here!

Both forms are equally correct grammatically. The use of the pronoun makes the expression more personal, which may be pleasing between friends but may sometimes be offensive to strangers. In such imperative sentences (see Verb, p.), the use or omission of the pronoun of the second person is a matter of taste or feeling, to be settled by circumstances in each case.

There are other expressions where the pronoun of the *second person* cannot be omitted. Thus in the sentences "*You* men will go" or "Will *you* men go," if we omit the pronoun we change the sentences to the *third* person, viz.: "Men will go" or "Will men go?"

4. The pronoun of the *third person* is scarcely ever expressed if the noun is given. Such expressions as "The man *he* told me" are never used by correct writers or speakers.*

* Note. — It was formerly quite customary to add the pronoun of the third person after its noun, as may be seen in various old ballads and their modern imitations. Thus:

So, fair and softly, John *he* cried;
But John *he* cried in vain;
The trot became a gallop soon,
In spite of curb and rein.

Cowper *John Gilpin.*

PERSONIFICATION IN PRONOUNS

Personification is a figure of speech by which things without life are referred to as if they were persons. (Compare PERSONIFICATION IN NOUNS, p. 27.)

Personification by the use of pronouns occurs when a masculine or feminine pronoun is used to refer to a neuter noun as if that noun represented a person and were itself of the masculine or feminine gender. Thus poets and orators speak of the sun as "he" and of the moon as "she," and a sailor speaks of his ship or a railroad man of his engine or train as "she."

> And see — the Sun *himself* — on wings
> Of glory, up the East *he* springs.
>
> MOORE *Lalla Rookh, The Fire Worshipers.*

> Now glowed the firmament
> With living sapphires; Hesperus, that led
> The starry host, rode brightest till the Moon,
> Apparent queen, unveiled *her* peerless light,
> And o'er the dark *her* silver mantle threw.
>
> MILTON *Paradise Lost*, bk. iv, l. 604.

> *She* bears down majestically near,
> Speed on *her* prow, and terror in *her* tier.
>
> BYRON *The Corsair*, can. iii, st. 15.

In ordinary use, any book on astronomy will refer to the sun or moon as "it," and a vessel may with perfect propriety be referred to as "it," as in the following examples:

> The sun, which passeth through pollutions, and *itself* remains as pure as before. — BACON *Advancement of Learning*, bk. ii.

> And there arose a great storm of wind, and the waves beat into the ship, so that *it* was now full. — *Mark* 4: 37.

In the case of a noun like "sun," "moon," or "ship," so personified, it is sufficient to say that it is *a noun of the*

*neuter gender used as masculine or feminine by personification.**

In such cases of personification, where inanimate objects are referred to as if living beings, the rule already given (see NOUN, p. 22) holds good, that *the grammatical gender of the noun is not to be inferred from the following pronoun*, however we may think of the *object* referred to. We cannot make a rule that "an antecedent must agree with its pronoun in gender."

III. NUMBER

Personal pronouns have complete forms for both the singular and plural in the first and second persons; the forms are also complete in the singular of the third person, but in the plural of that person a single set of forms (*they*, *their*, or *theirs*, *them*) is used as the common plural of *he*, *she*, and *it*. These forms for the most part explain themselves, but certain special uses require to be noted, as follows:

Use of *You* for *Thou*. — The plural forms *you*, *your*, and *yours* are now regularly used in addressing a single individual, the pronoun of the second person singular (*thou*, *thy* or *thine*, *thee*) being now wholly out of use in ordinary writing or conversation. It must be carefully noted, however, that

* NOTE. — A neuter noun does not necessarily take a masculine or feminine pronoun, even when used in direct address. Thus:

Then Israel sang this song, Spring up, O well; sing ye unto *it*.
Num. 21: 17–18.

O thou sword of the Lord, how long will it be ere thou be quiet? put thyself up into thy scabbard rest, and be still. How can *it* be quiet, seeing the Lord hath given *it* a charge? — *Jer.* 47: 6–7.

You when singular in use still *remains plural in form* and *must always take a plural verb.* We use "you are," "you were," etc., in addressing a single person, never "you is" or "you was." *

Uses of *Thou*. — The forms *thou*, *thy* or *thine*, *thee*, have now only the three following uses:

(*a*) In Scriptural language or in prayer. (See THE ANCIENT OR SOLEMN STYLE, p. 185.)

(*b*) In our older literature, as in the plays of Shakespeare, and somewhat rarely in modern poetry or oratory, where the ancient style is imitated, or where the older forms are used as especially impressive.

(*c*) In the conventional language of the Society of Friends, who have, however, introduced some changes peculiar to their own mode of speech, using the objective as a nominative with the third person of the verb and saying, for instance, "thee is" instead of "thou art."

Incorrect Use of Third Person Plural for the Singular. — "If any boy or girl comes late, *they* will lose *their* seat." The fact that the plural form is so convenient in its own place will not allow us to use it for the singular. In such cases either use the masculine "he," "his," and "him" for both sexes, as explained above under GENDER, p. 58(*a*), or change the form of expression. In the particular example here given it would be easy to say, "If any *boys* or *girls* come late, *they* will lose *their* seats." Then the plural would be correct throughout.

EXERCISE 13

Tell the person and number of each personal pronoun in the following extracts and decline the pronoun.

Beauty is its own excuse for being. — EMERSON *The Rhodora.*

* *You* referring to a single person is an instance of a pronoun that does *not* "agree with its antecedent in number."

Ring-ting! I wish I were a primrose,
A bright yellow primrose blowing in the spring!
The stooping boughs above me,
The wandering bee to love me,
The fern and moss to creep across,
And the elm-tree for our king!

WILLIAM ALLINGHAM *A Child's Song.*

The turf is warm beneath her feet,
Bordering the beach of stone and shell,
And thick about her path the sweet
Red blossoms of the pimpernel.

CELIA THAXTER *The Pimpernel.*

You take a pink,
You dig about its roots and water it,
And so improve it to a garden pink,
But will not change it to a heliotrope.

E. B. BROWNING *Aurora Leigh*, bk. vi.

Fate has carried me
'Mid the thick arrows; I will keep my stand, —
Not shrink and let the shaft pass by my breast
To pierce another.

GEORGE ELIOT *The Spanish Gypsy*, bk. iii.

Yet, ah! why should they know their fate,
Since sorrow never comes too late,
And happiness too swiftly flies?
Thought would destroy their paradise.

GRAY *On a Distant Prospect of Eton College.*

A poppy grows upon the shore,
Bursts her twin cup in autumn late:
Her leaves are glaucous green and hoar,
Her petals yellow, delicate.

ROBERT BRIDGES *The Sea Poppy.*

IV. CASE

Personal pronouns have for the most part different forms for the several cases, both in the singular and in the plural, as shown in the table of DECLENSIONS OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS, p. 55.

REMARKS

1. **Use of *Ye* and *You*.** — In the older English the form "ye" was used as the nominative, and "you" as the objective. This usage is very carefully maintained throughout the English Bible in the Authorized (or "King James's") Version (made in 1611). Thus, "When *ye* go over Jordan and dwell in the land which the Lord your God giveth *you*." "You" is now the only accepted form for the nominative as well as the objective in ordinary use. Poetry sometimes follows the older style.

> And ye talk together still,
> In the language wherewith spring
> Letters cowslips on the hill.
>
> TENNYSON *Adeline*, st. 5.

2. **Possessives Used with Nouns.** — The possessives *my*, *our*, *thy*, *your*, *his*, *her*, *its*, and *their* are used with the nouns which they qualify, precisely as adjectives would be; as, *my* book; *our* home; *his* pen; etc. *My*, *our*, *thy*, *your*, *her*, and *their* are never used apart from a noun which they qualify; *his* and *its* may be used either with or without a noun denoting the object possessed.

3. **Possessives Used Without Nouns.** — Several possessives of the personal pronouns appear in double forms, viz.: *my*, *mine*; *our*, *ours*; *thy*, *thine*; *your*, *yours*; *her*, *hers*; *their*, *theirs*. Of these the second of each pair, *mine*, *ours*, *thine*, *yours*, *hers*, and *theirs* is never (with certain rare exceptions) used with a noun, but stands alone as representing both the possessive and the noun to which it refers. Thus we have either "This is *my* book" or "This book is *mine*." *His* and *its* may be used without a noun in a precisely similar way; as, "This is my book; that is *his*;" "You have your life, and the tree has *its*." A possessive thus used without a noun is *treated in all respects as if it were itself a noun*, and may be either the subject or object of a verb or the object of a preposition; as, "*Yours* is here; give me *mine*." In parsing, such a possessive is sufficiently described as "a possessive pronoun *used as a noun*." The forms so used may be called *secondary possessives*.

EXCEPTIONS. — *Mine* and *thine* are often used in poetical style, as they formerly were on all occasions, before a noun beginning with

a vowel or with silent *h*. Such usage is constantly found in the Scriptures.

Oh that my head were waters, and *mine* eyes a fountain of tears. —*Jer.* 9: 1.

Lift up *thine* eyes westward. —*Deut.* 3: 27.

4. **The Possessive After *Of*.** — Just as a noun may form a double possessive, as "that knife *of Henry's*" (see p. 43), so may a possessive pronoun when used without its noun; as, "that knife *of his*," "this heart *of mine*." The double possessive is an accepted English idiom, by which the possessive is carried to the end of the phrase, clause, or sentence after *of* and without an accompanying noun.

COMPOUND PERSONAL PRONOUNS

Certain compound personal pronouns are formed by adding the word *self* or *selves* to the possessive of the simple personal pronoun; as, *myself* (*ourself*), *ourselves*, *thyself*, *yourself*, *yourselves*, *himself*, *herself*, *itself*, *themselves*.

These forms are the same both in the nominative and the objective, and have no possessive. They are used

(*a*) For emphasis; as, "I will go *myself*;" "I saw the man *himself*."

(*b*) For reference to the subject of the verb; as, "I hurt *myself*;" "Take care of *yourself*;" "They support *themselves*." Pronouns thus referring back to the original subject are often called *Reflexive Pronouns*.

In place of the possessives of the compound personal pronouns, when desired for emphasis, the simple possessives with *own* are used; as, "This is *my own* house;" "Send a letter in *your own* handwriting."

(*c*) Rarely as substitutes for the simple personal pronouns; as, "This invitation is for *yourself*;" "Regards to *yourself* and family."

SPECIAL USES OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS

Special Uses of *We.* — It is customary for a monarch to use "we," "our" and "us" in referring to himself; as, "*We* hereby decree," etc.

The editor of a paper or magazine uses "we" in referring to himself; as, *We* referred in our last issue to the recent act of Congress, etc. This is called the *Editorial We.*

The Indefinite *You.* — It is common to use "you" as applying indefinitely to any or all persons, and not especially to the person or persons addressed; as, *You* will win friends by being friendly,— that is, *any one* will so win friends.

The Indefinite *It.* — The pronoun *it* may refer to a phrase or clause, or even to an entire sentence, or at times to some implied thought; as, Some say that matter is eternal, but I do not believe it.

Or the pronoun *it* may be used as the indefinite subject of a verb without referring to anything in particular; as, *It* rains; *It* is too late to go. This is often called the *impersonal use* of the verb.

It may be used as an introductory pronoun, to represent a phrase or clause that is to follow the verb; as, *It* is likely that he will come.

Formerly *it* was used indefinitely as a supplementary object of a verb, as it is still used in poetry and sometimes in popular speech; as, "Come and trip *it* as we go;" to "foot *it*" to town.

EXERCISE 14

Select the personal pronouns from the following extracts and decline each one.

> A friend should bear his friend's infirmities,
> But Brutus makes mine greater than they are.
>
> SHAKESPEARE *Julius Cæsar*, act iv, sc. 3.

> And so to tread
> As if the wind, not she, did walk;
> Nor prest a flower, nor bowed a stalk.
>
> BEN JONSON *The Vision of Delight.*

The pyramids themselves, doting with age, have forgotten the names of their founders. — FULLER *Holy and Profane States.*

I heard him walking across the floor,
As he always does, with a heavy tread.
LONGFELLOW *The Golden Legend*, pt. ii.

For by these
Shall I try friends; you shall perceive how you
Mistake my fortunes; I am wealthy in my friends.
SHAKESPEARE *Timon of Athens*, act ii, sc. 2.

I am not of that feather to shake off
My friend when he must need me.
SHAKESPEARE *Timon of Athens*, act i, sc. 1.

I would be friends with you and have your love.
SHAKESPEARE *Merchant of Venice*, act i, sc. 3.

Those friends thou hast, and their adoption tried,
Grapple them to thy soul with hoops of steel;
But do not dull thy palm with entertainment
Of each new-hatch'd, unfledg'd comrade.
SHAKESPEARE *Hamlet*, act i, sc. 3.

Let the doors be shut upon him, that he may play the fool nowhere but in his own house. — SHAKESPEARE *Hamlet*, act iii, sc. 1.

The fool doth think he is wise, but the wise man knows himself to be a fool. — SHAKESPEARE *As You Like It*, act v, sc. 1.

You violets that first appear,
By your pure purple mantles known,
Like the proud virgins of the year,
As if the spring were all your own, —
What are you when the rose is blown?
SIR HENRY WOTTON *To the Queen of Bohemia.*

Sometimes I choose the lily without stain;
The royal rose sometimes the best I call;
Then the low daisy, dancing with the rain,
Doth seem to me the finest flower of all;
And yet if only one could bloom for me —
I know right well what flower that one would be.
ALICE CARY *The Field Sweet-Brier.*

Class II. Demonstrative Pronouns

A Demonstrative Pronoun is one that directly indicates its antecedent, as if with pointing finger.

Demonstrative is from the Latin *demonstro*, point out.

The only demonstrative pronouns are *this* (plural *these*) and *that* (plural *those*).

This points out its object as near in space, time, or thought; *that* points out its object as comparatively remote in space, time, or thought; as, "*This* (in my hand) is my book; *that* (in your hand) is yours;" "*This* is my property, and I wish to buy *that* land adjoining;" "*This* event happened yesterday; *that*, a hundred years ago."

Remarks

1. There is a peculiar use of *this* and *that* as to one's own opinions or utterances. Before making a statement a person views it as still in his own possession and says, "*This* is my opinion (which I will now proceed to give)." After stating it he views it as in the possession of the person or persons addressed and says, "*That* (which you have now heard or read) is my opinion." So in listening to another's statement which he approves he says, "*That* is my opinion."

2. A usage formerly very common but seldom met with in recent literature, in referring to two things previously mentioned, would make *this* refer to the thing last mentioned, and *that* to the thing first mentioned; as, "Alcohol and tobacco are both objectionable; *this* (tobacco), however, less than *that* (alcohol)." When so used, *that* always signifies "the former;" *this*, "the latter."

3. *This* or *that* may refer not to any single noun as an antecedent, but to a phrase, clause, or sentence, or even an implied thought. Thus: "Is the atomic theory sound? *That* is what science wishes to ascertain." *This* so used may refer to a statement or thought which is to follow; as, "Tell me *this:* can I depend on your giving the message promptly?"

EXERCISE 15

Point out and explain the demonstrative pronouns in the following examples.

> The thing we long for, that we are
> For one transcendent moment.
>
> LOWELL *Longing.*

> A wild rose roofs the ruined shed,
> And that and summer well agree.
>
> COLERIDGE *A Day Dream.*

No more of that, Hal, an thou lovest me. — SHAKESPEARE *Henry IV*, pt. i, act ii, sc. 4.

> There is none like that; give it me.
>
> 1 *Sam.* 21: 9.

> Ay, these look like the workmanship of heaven;
> This is the porcelain clay of human kind,
> And therefore cast into these noble moulds.
>
> DRYDEN *Don Sebastian*, act i, sc. 1.

> They look into the beauty of thy mind,
> And that, in guess, they measure by thy deeds.
>
> SHAKESPEARE *Sonnet* lxix.

That's too civil by half. — SHERIDAN *The Rivals*, act iii, sc. 4.

God grants liberty only to those who love it, and are always ready to defend it. — DANIEL WEBSTER *Speech*, June 3, 1834.

These are excitements to duty; but they are not suggestions of doubt. — DANIEL WEBSTER *First Bunker Hill Monument Oration.*

The clear conception, outrunning the deductions of logic, the high purpose, the firm resolve, the dauntless spirit, speaking on the tongue, beaming from the eye, informing every feature, and urging the whole man onward, right onward to his object, — this, this is eloquence; or rather, it is something greater and higher than all eloquence, — it is action, noble, sublime, godlike action. — DANIEL WEBSTER *Oration on Adams and Jefferson.*

Class III. Interrogative Pronouns

An Interrogative Pronoun is a pronoun used to ask a question. (Such pronouns are often called simply *interrogatives.*)

The interrogative pronouns are *who, which,* and *what.*

These are used also as relative pronouns, but the interrogative use came first in order of time.

The interrogative pronouns are the same for all genders, persons, and numbers. *Who* alone has distinctions of case, and is declined as follows:

	Masculine and Feminine; Singular and Plural
Nominative	who
Possessive	whose
Objective	whom

Which and *what* have no declension, being wholly without change of form, however used. (For the possessives of *which* and *what* used as interrogatives the prepositional phrases with *of* are employed, — *of which, of what.*)

While the interrogatives have no gender forms of their own, they may be used with reference to subjects of the different genders, as follows:

(*a*) *Who* as an interrogative is used only for persons (these being, of course, either masculine or feminine).

(*b*) *Which* as an interrogative may be used either for persons, for the inferior animals, or for things.

(*c*) When so used of persons, *who* is universal, *which* is selective. That is, *who* asks for any one of all persons; *which* asks for any one of a certain number or group of persons. Thus:

"*Who* did this?" The answer may be any one or more of *all persons*, present or absent, living now or in any past time.

"*Which* of you did this?" The answer is some one or more *of the group of persons addressed.* "*Which* of the boys did this?" The answer points out some one or more *of a certain number or group of boys*, as the boys of the school, of a class, or the like. That is, *which* selects from a limited number, as *who* does not.

What as interrogative may apply either to persons, to the inferior animals, or to things. As applied to persons, *what* is descriptive. That is, *what* asks for the character, occupation, or the like. Thus:

"*What* is that man?" The answer may be, "He is a teacher (or a preacher, or a soldier, etc.)." That is, the answer tells what the person is or does. If we asked, "*Who* is that man?" the expected answer would tell his name.

Which or *what* may be used with an accompanying noun; as, *Which* man called? *What* boy is that? (For such use, see ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS, p. 81.) *Who* is never used as an adjective pronoun.

What as applied to things is universal, asking for any one of all things; as, *What* did you find? *What* have we here? *What* do you wish?

When a direct question is made indirect, as in quotation, the interrogative pronoun has much the appearance of a relative. Thus:

Direct Question	*Indirect Question*
Who did this?	He asked *who* did this.
What did you find?	They inquired *what* I found.

In indirect questions the pronouns *who*, *which*, and *what* are to be classed as interrogatives, because the question is still contained in the phrase, though in different form.

Interrogative pronouns have no antecedents.

For *who*, *which*, and *what* as relatives, see RELATIVE PRONOUNS, p. 75.

For *which* and *what* used with an accompanying noun, see ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS, p. 81.

EXERCISE 16

Point out and explain the interrogative pronouns in the following examples.

> What shall I do to be forever known,
> And make the age to come my own?
>
> COWLEY *The Motto.*

You know who critics are? — the men who have failed in literature and art. — DISRAELI *Lothair*, ch. 35.

> Who o'er the herd would wish to reign,
> Fantastic, fickle, fierce, and vain?
> Vain as the leaf upon the stream,
> And fickle as a changeful dream; —
> Thou many-headed monster thing,
> Oh, who would wish to be thy king?
>
> SCOTT *Lady of the Lake*, can. v, st. 30.

> What sought they thus afar?
> Bright jewels of the mine?
> The wealth of seas, the spoils of war? —
> They sought a faith's pure shrine!
>
> MRS. HEMANS *Landing of the Pilgrim Fathers.*

> Why, what is pomp, rule, reign, but earth and dust?
> And, live we how we can, yet die we must.
>
> SHAKESPEARE *Henry VI*, pt. iii, act v, sc. 2.

> Which is the villain? . . . Which of these is he?
>
> SHAKESPEARE *Much Ado about Nothing*, act. v, sc. 1.

> What then remains, but well our power to use,
> And keep good humor still, whate'er we lose?
>
> POPE *Rape of the Lock*, can. v, l. 29.

Well, 'tis no matter; honor pricks me on. . . . Can honor set to a leg? no: or an arm? no: or take away the grief of a wound? no. Honor hath no skill in surgery, then? no. What is honor? a word. What is in that word honor? What is that honor? air. A trim reckoning! Who hath it? He that died o' Wednesday. Doth he feel it? no. Doth he hear it? no. 'Tis insensible, then? Yea, to the dead. But will it not live with the living? no. Why? detraction will not suffer it. Therefore I'll none of it. — SHAKESPEARE *Henry IV*, pt. i, act v, sc. 1.

And who is he that will harm you, if ye be followers of that which is good? — 1 *Peter* 3: 13.

Class IV. Relative Pronouns

A Relative Pronoun is a pronoun that relates to an antecedent and at the same time joins to it a limiting or qualifying clause; as, This is the house *that* I prefer; We found a boatman, *who* rowed us over the ferry; He is fond of apples, *which* are very healthful.

The relative pronouns in common use are *who*, *which*, *what*, and *that; as* in certain uses (see p. 77) is also classed as a relative pronoun. To this list some grammarians add *but* following a negative. See also COMPOUND RELATIVES, p. 77.

Declensions of Relative Pronouns

Of the relatives, *who* alone is declined (compare INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS, p. 72) as follows:

	Masculine and Feminine; Singular and Plural
Nominative	who
Possessive	whose
Objective	whom

Which, *what*, and *that* have no declension, being the same for all genders, for both numbers, and in the nominative and objective cases, and having no possessive.

EXCEPTION. — To the statement that *which* is not declined there is an apparent exception, but only of usage, not of form; namely,

Whose, the possessive of *who*, is used also as the possessive of *which* by many of the best authors. Thus:

> 'Tis beauty truly blent, *whose* red and white
> Nature's own sweet and cunning hand laid on.
> SHAKESPEARE *Twelfth Night*, act i, sc. 5, l. 257.

> No stone is fitted in yon marble girth
> *Whose* echo shall not tongue thy glorious doom.
> TENNYSON *Tiresias*, st. 10.

> Spires *whose* silent finger points to heaven.
> WORDSWORTH *The Excursion*, bk. vi, l. 19.

Instead of the possessive of the relative, the form with *of* is frequently used, — *of whom*, *of which*, *of what*. When *of* is used with *that*, the *of* follows *that*, and is carried to the end of the clause or sentence; as, This is the man *that* I spoke *of*.

Which is often used, like *it* (see p. 68), as referring not to any single noun but to a phrase or clause, or even to an implied thought as its antecedent; as, He asserted that the United States is merely a confederacy, *which* I do not believe.

Gender Uses of Relative Pronouns. — Relative pronouns have no proper distinctions of gender, but certain distinctions of usage are established, as follows:

(*a*) *Who* refers only to *persons* (that is, to intelligent living beings), but without discriminating masculine or feminine; we say with equal propriety, "The boy *who* was there" or "The girl *who* was there."

(*b*) *Which* as a relative now refers only to the lower animals without distinction of masculine or feminine, or to things without life; as, The whale, *which* was resting quietly; Consult the dictionary, *which* is a storehouse of knowledge. (Compare the interrogative *which*, p. 72 (*b*).)

NOTE. — *Which* was formerly freely used for persons, even in the most exalted sense, as in the Authorized Version of the Bible, "Our Father, *which* art in heaven." — *Matt.* 6: 9.

(*c*) *What* as a relative is strictly neuter in use, referring only to things without life. (Compare the use of *what* as an interrogative, p. 73.)

Personal Uses of Relative Pronouns. — *Who* and *that* may be used for either the first, second, or third person; as, "I, John, *who* also am your brother." — *Rev.* 1: 9; "You *who* are present know the facts, and those *who* are absent will be informed;" "I *that* speak unto thee am he." — *John* 4: 26; "Is it nothing to you, all ye *that* pass by?" — *Lam.* 1: 12.

> And who *that* knew him can forget
> The busy wrinkles round his eyes?
>
> TENNYSON *The Miller's Daughter*, st. 1, l. 3.

Which and *what* as referring only to the lower animals or to inanimate objects are used only in the third person.

***What* as a Double Relative.** — The relative *what* is peculiar as combining in itself antecedent and relative, being equivalent to *that which;* as, Take *what* (*that which*) you want.

COMPOUND RELATIVE PRONOUNS

Who, *which*, and *what* add the suffixes *ever* and *soever*, with distributive effect (*whoever*, *whichever*, *whatever*, *whatsoever*, etc.), to make the pronoun apply to any one of all persons or things without limitation. *Whoever* and *whosoever* form the objectives *whomever* and *whomsoever*.

As* Used as a Relative Pronoun. — In certain connections *as* is best explained as a relative pronoun. This relative use of *as* is most frequent after *such*. Thus:

The viceroy still further enlarged his resources by the sequestration of the revenues belonging to such ecclesiastics *as* resided in Rome. — PRESCOTT *Philip II*, vol. i, bk. i, ch. 6, p. 171.

EXERCISE 17

Point out and explain the relative pronouns in the following extracts; name their antecedents.

> Like Dead Sea fruit that tempts the eye,
> But turns to ashes on the lips!
>
> MOORE *Lalla Rookh, The Fire Worshipers.*

The condition which high friendship demands is ability to do without it. — EMERSON *Essays, Of Friendship.*

* NOTE. — *But* is sometimes classed as a relative pronoun in such sentences as "There is not a bird *but* does more good than harm." Many of the foremost authorities, however, prefer to treat *but* in such use as an adversative conjunction, which it elsewhere usually is.

Who friendship with a knave hath made,
Is judged a partner in the trade.
GAY *The Old Woman and Her Cats.*

For whoever knows how to return a kindness he has received must be a friend above all price. — SOPHOCLES *Philoctetus.*

He who has a thousand friends has not a friend to spare,
And he who has one enemy shall meet him everywhere.
ALI BEN ABU TALEB.

To wisdom he's a fool that will not yield.
SHAKESPEARE *Pericles*, act ii, sc. 4.

The little windflower, whose just opened eye
Is blue as the spring heaven it gazes at.
BRYANT *A Winter Piece.*

Seven cities warred for Homer being dead,
Who living had no roofe to shroud his head.
THOMAS HEYWOOD *Hierarchie of the Blessed Angels.*

The fresh eglantine exhaled a breath,
Whose odors were of power to raise from death.
DRYDEN *The Flower and the Leaf*, l. 96.

That a lie which is half a truth is ever the blackest of lies;
That a lie which is all a lie may be met and fought with outright —
But a lie which is part a truth is a harder matter to fight.
TENNYSON *The Grandmother*, st. 8.

And what they dare to dream of, dare to do.
LOWELL *Ode at Harvard Commemoration*, 1865.

Whose game was empires, and whose stakes were thrones;
Whose table earth; whose dice were human bones.
BYRON *The Age of Bronze*, st. 3.

What makes life dreary is the want of motive. —GEORGE ELIOT *Daniel Deronda*, bk. viii, ch. 65.

Class V. Indefinite Pronouns

An Indefinite Pronoun is a pronoun that represents an object indefinitely or generally; as, *Any* of you may go who wish; Has *either* of them been here? Bring me *some* of those books.

The chief indefinite pronouns are *another*, *any*, *both*, *each*, *either*, *neither*, *none*, *one*, *other*, *some*, *such*.*

In the older style *aught* (anything) and *naught* (nothing), sometimes spelled *ought* and *nought*, were used as indefinite pronouns. *Certain*, *divers*, *sundry*, and *whether* were also formerly so used.

Pronominal Phrases. — Certain groups of words, as *any one*, *every one*, *no one*, *some one*, may be termed Pronominal Phrases or Pronoun Phrases.

A peculiar English usage is, that when the adverb *else* is associated with one of these compounds or phrases, the whole expression is used in the possessive case like a single word. Thus we say, *anybody else's*, *any one else's*, *somebody else's*, *some one else's*.

(Some grammarians insist that in all such cases we should say, *any one's else*, etc. But the commonly preferred usage puts the sign of the possessive at the end of the entire phrase, treating the whole as a single pronominal or substantive phrase, as above stated.)

Distributive Pronouns. — The indefinite pronouns *each*, *either*, and *neither* are sometimes termed Distributive Pronouns, because they separate some one of the objects referred to from others spoken of in the same connection.

Reciprocal Pronouns. — The indefinite pronouns grouped in the phrases, *each other*, *one another*, are sometimes called Reciprocal Pronouns, because the action of each is regarded as affecting the other. Strictly, *each other* should be used only of two persons, *one another* of more than two; as, The husband and wife loved *each other;* All the firemen were helping *one another*. But this distinction is not always observed.

* NOTE. — *All*, *few*, *many*, *much*, and *several* are by some treated as indefinite pronouns, but are best treated as adjectives which are at times used as nouns. *Few*, *many*, and *much* are compared, which seems to rank them distinctively as adjectives.

A number of compounds are sometimes classed as indefinite pronouns; as, *anybody*, *anything*, *everybody*, *everything*, *nobody*, *nothing*, *somebody*, *something;* but these are preferably treated as nouns.

Number. — Among the Indefinite Pronouns, *another*, *each*, *either*, and *neither* are singular only; *any* and *both* are plural only; *some* and *such* are either singular or plural; *one* and *other* are singular, but form regular plurals, *ones* and *others*. *None* (originally meaning *no one*) was formerly held to be singular only, but is now by approved authors used also as a plural:

> *None* linger now upon the plain
> Save those who ne'er shall fight again.
> SCOTT *Lady of the Lake*, can. vi, st. 18, l. 39.

Cases. — The Indefinite Pronouns have the same form in the nominative and in the objective case, whether singular or plural. *Another* and *one* form regular possessives, *another's* and *one's; either's*, *neither's*, *other's*, and *others'* are also, though more seldom, used.

When the intensive *self* is added to *one*, it may form either a possessive phrase, *one's self*, or a compound, *oneself;* the latter is coming to be preferred. (Compare COMPOUND PERSONAL PRONOUNS, p. 67.)

EXERCISE 18

Point out and explain the indefinite pronouns in the following examples:

> All are architects of Fate,
> Working in these walls of Time;
> Some with massive stones and great,
> Some with ornaments of rime.
> LONGFELLOW *The Builders*, st. 1.

> To all, to each, a fair good-night,
> And pleasing dreams, and slumbers light.
> SCOTT *Marmion, L'Envoy.*

> None but himself can be his parallel.
> LEWIS THEOBALD *The Double Falsehood.*

I'll take thy word for faith, not ask thine oath;
Who shuns not to break one, will sure crack both.

SHAKESPEARE *Pericles*, act i, sc. 2.

In other part stood one who, at the forge
Laboring, two massy clods of iron and brass
Had melted.

MILTON *Paradise Lost*, bk. xi, l. 564.

Some books are to be tasted, others to be swallowed, and some few to be chewed and digested. — BACON *Essays, Of Studies.*

I am convinced that we have a degree of delight, and that no small one, in the real misfortunes and pains of others. — BURKE *The Sublime and the Beautiful*, pt. i, sec. 14.

I never knew a man in my life who could not bear another's misfortunes perfectly like a Christian. — POPE (Swift's *Thoughts on Various Subjects*).

How happy could I be with either,
Were t'other dear charmer away!
But while ye thus tease me together,
To neither a word will I say.

GAY *Beggar's Opera*, act ii, sc. 2.

The soul is superior to its knowledge, wiser than any of its works. — EMERSON *Essays, The Oversoul.*

Class VI. Adjective Pronouns

The demonstratives *this* (pl. *these*) and *that* (pl. *those*), the interrogatives *which* and *what*, the relatives *which* and *what*, and all the Indefinite Pronouns, except *none*, may be used with nouns or pronouns like adjectives; as, *this* book; *these* apples; *that* man; *those* boys; *another* day, etc. Pronouns so used are called Adjective Pronouns.

Who is never used as an adjective pronoun.

None is never used in modern English as an adjective pronoun, though formerly so employed; the adjective *no* now takes the place of *none* before a noun or pronoun; as, *no* man; *no* one; *no* others.

Adjective pronouns are used precisely like adjectives, except that they do not admit of comparison.* See COMPARISON under ADJECTIVES, p. 91.

SUBSTITUTE TERM

Pronominal Adjectives. — Many grammarians prefer to call the adjective pronouns *pronominal adjectives;* but as most of these words are chiefly known as pronouns, it seems best to keep them altogether within the class of pronouns, even when they have adjective use. *This* and *that* have distinct plurals (*these* and *those*), while the plural form is elsewhere unknown among adjectives, so that to call these words with their plurals "adjectives" is to introduce a troublesome anomaly. As adjective pronouns, they present no difficulty.

NOTE. — For the use of *many* as an apparent singular in such phrases as "many a man," "a great many," see THE ARTICLE under THE ADJECTIVE, p. 104.

Error. — It is common to hear such expressions as, "*these* kind of flowers," "*those* sort of people," which are inaccurate.† "Kind" or "sort" in such a phrase is singular, and the adjective pronoun accompanying it

* NOTE. — Certain words which are compared are sometimes treated as indefinite, and also as adjective, pronouns; as, *few* (*fewer*, *fewest*), *little* (*less*, *least*), *many* (*more*, *most*), *much* (*more*, *most*); but as the comparison of pronouns is elsewhere unknown in grammar, it is better to treat these words, *few*, *little*, *many*, and *much*, as adjectives which may at times be used as nouns, as adjectives of all kinds very frequently are. See ADJECTIVES, p. 103.

† NOTE. — It has been pointed out, however, that the high authority of Shakespeare may be pleaded for these very expressions, as evidenced in the following extract:

"*these kind*, *these sort*, etc.: Such expressions, though common, are now usually considered altogether wrong. Yet Shakespeare has many instances of such use. Thus, in "Twelfth Night" (act i, sc. 5) he writes, "*these* kind of fools," and in "King Lear" (act ii, sc. 2) a precisely similar expression, "these kind of knaves." In "Othello" (act iii, sc. 3) he has, "these are a kind of men." — FRANK H. VIZETELLY *A Desk-Book of Errors in English*, p. 211.

must also be singular. A good way to make this clear to oneself is to omit altogether the prepositional phrase ("of flowers;" "of people"); then every one would say, "*this* kind," "*that* sort," etc. Hence we should say, "*this* kind of flowers," "*that* sort of people."

EXERCISE 19

Point out and explain all the adjective pronouns in the following extracts:

The true University of these days is a collection of books. — CARLYLE *Heroes and Hero-Worship.*

> The muse might tell what culture will entice
> The ripened melon to perfume each month.
>
> GRAINGER *The Sugar Cane.*

Some friendships are made by nature, some by contract, some by interest, and some by souls. — JEREMY TAYLOR *A Discourse on Friendship.*

> This fellow is wise enough to play the fool;
> And to do that well craves a kind of wit.
>
> SHAKESPEARE *Twelfth Night*, act iii, sc. 1.

> I have touched the highest point of all my greatness;
> And from that full meridian of my glory,
> I haste now to my setting.
>
> SHAKESPEARE *Henry VIII*, act iii, sc. 2.

> With one hand he put
> A penny in the urn of poverty,
> And with the other took a shilling out.
>
> POLLOK *Course of Time*, bk. viii, l. 632.

The true greatness of nations is in those qualities which constitute the greatness of the individual. — CHARLES SUMNER *Oration on the True Grandeur of Nations.*

And this cuff was but to knock at your ear, and beseech listening. — SHAKESPEARE *Taming of the Shrew*, act iv, sc. 1.

> He tried each art, reproved each dull delay,
> Allured to brighter worlds, and led the way.
>
> GOLDSMITH *The Deserted Village*, l. 169.

There is always hope when people are forced to listen to both sides. — MILL *On Liberty.*

SECTION X

To Parse a Pronoun. — State:

1. That it is a Pronoun, and why (definition of pronoun);
2. Class to which it belongs, and why;
3. Antecedent, if any;
4. Gender, and why;
5. Person, and why;
6. Number, and why;
7. Case, and why;
8. Declension in full, if declinable;
9. Explain the construction.

This form may be varied and much condensed at times by pupils who have acquired facility, but it should be made certain that all the items above enumerated are included, or can be given on demand.

Often the "why" of some of these items is answered by the *form* of the pronoun. We know that "he" is masculine, and "she" feminine, because the former is of the masculine and the latter of the feminine *form;* we know that "*him*" or "*whom*" is in the objective case because either word is of the objective *form;* we know that "they" or "them" is plural by the mere *form* of the word. In many cases the *form* of the pronoun is our only guide — and a perfectly sufficient guide — in these particulars.

Examples

I. — *I* met the boy, and sent *him* home.

I is a personal pronoun of indeterminate gender, first person, singular number, and nominative case, as shown by its form (decline it), and is the subject of the verb *met* or the subject of the sentence.

him is a personal pronoun of the masculine gender, third person, singular number, and objective case, as shown by its form. It is the object of the verb *sent*, and refers to *boy* as its antecedent, with which it agrees in gender, person, and number. (Rule 1, p. 53.)

II. — I do not find *my* book; George, may I take *yours?*

my is a personal pronoun of indeterminate gender, first person, singular number, and possessive case, as shown by its form (decline the pronoun *I*), and is used like an adjective to describe the noun *book*.*

yours is a personal pronoun, of indeterminate gender, second person, plural number, and possessive case, as shown by its form (decline the pronoun *thou*), and is used as a singular, referring to the singular noun *George* as its antecedent, according to the rule that the plural forms *you*, *your*, and *yours* are in modern English correctly used, even in addressing a single individual. (p. 64.)

The possessive form *yours* is used instead of *your*, because the noun which it qualifies is not expressed; *yours* is here equivalent to *your book*, and is used like a noun, as the object of the verb *take*.

III. — There is the man *whom* I saw at the door.

whom is a relative pronoun of indeterminate gender, person, and number, and objective case, as shown by its form; it refers to *man* as its antecedent, and is used as of the third person and singular number, to correspond to that antecedent; it is in the objective case because it is the object of the verb *saw*.

* NOTE. — It will be observed that we do not say here that "my" is an adjective, though it qualifies a noun precisely as an adjective might do. It is better to let the word hold its true character of a *pronoun*, and then state that it is "used like an adjective;" thus we avoid confusing the different parts of speech.

Similarly, we do not call "yours" *singular* in number, though it refers to a singular antecedent, but we say, "it is used like a singular."

Again, we do not call "yours" a *noun*, though it has precisely the *construction of a noun*, as the object of the verb *take;* but we say it is "used like a noun."

The part of speech, and its gender, number, person, and case remain true to the original form, though the word may be "used like" some other part of speech, or some other form, as distinctly stated.

IV. — My cousin is visiting with *her* friends in Baltimore.

her is a personal pronoun, of the feminine gender, third person, singular number, and possessive case, as shown by its form; it refers to the noun *cousin* as its antecedent, and is used like an adjective to qualify the noun *friends*.*

V. — I did not see the baby, as *it* was out for an airing.

it is a personal pronoun, of the neuter gender, third person, and singular number, as shown by its form; it refers to the noun *baby*, of indeterminate gender, as its antecedent, and is used as "the indeterminate neuter" (p. 59) to refer to the noun *baby* without specifying the sex, which is unknown or uncared for; it is in the nominative case, as the subject of the verb *was*.

EXERCISE 20

Parse all the pronouns in Exercises 18–19 (pp. 80, 83).

THE ADJECTIVE

SECTION I

DEFINITION

An **Adjective** is a word used to describe or limit a noun or pronoun; as, "a *large* house;" "a *high* hill;" "I am *hungry;*" "he seems *weak;*" "I have *two* books;" "he found it *good.*"

The word *adjective* is from the Latin *ad*, to, and *jacio*, throw, thus denoting something adjoined or added, as the adjective is to its noun.

* NOTE. — If the *reason* is asked why the feminine form is here used, the answer can only be that it is used to correspond with the *sex* of the person referred to, *as known to the speaker*, though not indicated by the antecedent, since the noun "cousin" gives no indication of gender, being in that respect altogether "indeterminate." The feminine *her* is used because of what the speaker knows of the person, and not because of anything indicated by the antecedent. (Rule 4, p. 58.)

Every Adjective a Modifier. — To modify is to make different, or, as regards words, in some way to affect or change the meaning. Every adjective makes some difference in the meaning of its noun or pronoun. The noun brings the object before the mind; as, a *horse;* a *paper*. The adjective brings before the mind some particular concerning the object, which the noun alone would not give; as, a *swift* horse; a *daily* paper.

SECTION II

CLASSES OF ADJECTIVES

Adjectives may be divided into two classes, Descriptive (as, "a *beautiful* rose;" "salt is *useful*") and Limiting (as, "*one* person;" "*double* measure;" "a *daily* paper").

1. **Descriptive Adjectives** may be subdivided into various groups. Participles used descriptively are often called *Participial Adjectives;* as, "*singing* birds;" "a *learned* man." See PARTICIPLE, pp. 174, 179. *Proper Adjectives* are adjectives derived from proper names; as, "an *American* Indian;" "a *European* language."

It must be carefully noted that in English a proper adjective must always begin with a capital letter; as, *American*, *English*, *German*, etc. This rule is largely disregarded in the "library style," which is a technical system for noting the titles of books, and not recognized in ordinary usage.

Other divisions are given by various grammarians, but are not of special importance.

2. **Limiting Adjectives** are divided into: (*a*) *Adjectives of Quantity*, including *Numeral Adjectives* (or *Numerals*), *one*, *two*, *three*, etc. (see NUMERALS, p. 99), and various

Adjectives of Repetition, Division, Measure, or Frequency; as, *half*, *double*, *fourfold*, *daily*, *weekly*, etc. (*b*) The Articles *a* or *an* and *the* (see ARTICLE, p. 101).

Some authors add Pronominal Adjectives, which in this book are treated as Adjective Pronouns. See PRONOUN, p. 81.

SECTION III

POSITION OF THE ADJECTIVE

1. With the Noun

RULE 1. — The English * adjective regularly precedes the noun which it modifies; as, a *good* man; a *lofty* spire. This is called the *attributive* use of the adjective, and an adjective in such connection is said to be "used attributively."

The Adjective Following Its Noun. —An adjective may at times follow its noun for emphasis or otherwise; as, men, *good* and *true*. This form gives special emphasis to the adjective because a change from the usual order. It will be seen that this use is precisely similar to apposition in nouns, as if we were to say, "men, citizens and patriots;" that is, "men who are citizens and patriots." This use of the adjective following its noun is called the *appositive* use, and an adjective so used is said to be "used appositively."

The chief cases in which an adjective is used after its noun are the following:

* The French language commonly puts the adjective after its noun; as "*la maison bleue*," which we translate "the blue house." Though the Norman-French long had the supremacy in England after the Conquest, this order of words was never adopted by the English speech, which still regularly places the adjective before the noun which it modifies.

(1) The following adjectives are placed after the nouns they modify: *afraid*, *alert* (often, not always), *alike*, *alive*, *alone*, *ashamed*, *askew*, *asleep*, *averse*, *awake*, *aware*, *else*, *enough* (usually), *extant*, *extinct*, *fraught*, *pursuant;* also in certain special combinations, such as notary *public*, that is, a *public* notary; court *martial*, a *martial* (or military) court, and various others.

(2) When an adjective is modified by an infinitive, a prepositional or other phrase which could not well come between the adjective and its noun, the adjective so modified follows its noun; as, a person *desirous* to do right; a child, *eager* to learn; a mind *conscious* of rectitude.

(3) When two or more adjectives are connected by a conjunction or conjunctions, expressed or understood, they may either precede or follow the noun which they modify; as, The *rich and prosperous* man built that house; or, The man, *rich and prosperous*, built that house.

(4) When an adverb precedes the adjective, the adjective so modified may either precede or follow its noun; as, A *very unsatisfactory* apology was offered; or, An apology, *very unsatisfactory*, was offered.

(5) Many participles, or adjectives of participial form, may either precede or follow their nouns; as, the *past month*, or, the month *past ;* an *unknown* time, or, a time *unknown*.

(6) In poetry and in elevated prose, an adjective often follows its noun simply for emphasis; as, goodness *infinite;* wisdom *unsearchable;* joy *unspeakable*. This is also the case to a limited degree in common speech; as, reasons *innumerable;* damage *irreparable;* bills *payable;* bills *receivable*, etc.

(7) *Anything*, *everything*, *nothing*, *something*, are always followed, and not preceded, by any modifying adjective.

(8) An adjective may be used as an epithet after its noun, and is then commonly preceded by the article "the;" as, Frederick *the Great;* Edward *the Seventh*. But when the name of a monarch is written with Roman numerals, the article is not employed; as, Charles II, George IV.

2. With the Pronoun

RULE 2. — An adjective directly modifying a pronoun regularly follows the pronoun which it modifies; as, We found him *unconscious*.

RULE 3. — Two or more adjectives connected by a conjunction or conjunctions expressed or understood, may modify a single noun or pronoun; as, The child, *faint*, *weary*, and *sad*, was sitting by the wayside.

NOTE. — Where several adjectives thus modify a single noun or pronoun, the conjunction is usually omitted except before the last adjective of the series, as in the example above given. See CONJUNCTION, p. 270.

RULE 4. — Two adjectives may be joined to one noun or pronoun without a conjunction expressed or understood, when one adjective modifies the complex idea expressed by the other adjective with its noun; as, A *poor old* man (that is, an *old man* who is *poor*); a spirited *white horse* (that is, a *white horse* that is *spirited*).

CAUTION. — When adjectives are so used, the one next the noun must be such as the former may properly qualify. We should not say, "The *two first* pages," because there can be but one "first" page, but "The *first two* pages," because the pages may be thought of as in pairs or sets, giving a "*first two*," a "second two," etc.; so "The *next three* houses;" "the *last ten* lessons."

The Predicate Adjective. — An adjective may be used after a verb in the predicate, to modify the subject; as, The hour is *late;* The boy is *honest*. An adjective so used is called the *predicate adjective*.

For the position of the article with any other adjective, see POSITION OF THE ARTICLE, p. 104.

SECTION IV

PROPERTIES OF ADJECTIVES

None of the properties that distinguish nouns or pronouns are to be found in adjectives.

English adjectives have neither *gender*, *person*, *number*, nor *case*.

This is a fact of the very greatest importance and value. When we once know the original form of an adjective, we have only to use that form for any noun or pronoun, whatever the gender, person, number, case, or position of that noun or pronoun may be. In this English differs from most other languages, ancient or modern, giving the advantage of exceeding simplicity, with no loss of clearness.

Only when we change the meaning of the adjective, to express more or less of the quality referred to, do we have any property of the adjective demanding special consideration. This property is called *Comparison*.

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES

Comparison is the method by which an adjective may be made to express a greater or less degree of the same quality.

There are three degrees of comparison, as follows:

1. The **Positive Degree.** — An adjective in the Positive Degree expresses simply the quality of an object without reference to any other object; as, a *tall* man; a *sad* story; a *good* book.

2. The **Comparative Degree.** — An adjective in the Comparative Degree expresses more or less of a quality in an object than that of some other object with which it is compared; as, a *taller* man; a *sadder* story; a *better* book; a *less important* item.

3. The **Superlative Degree.** — An adjective in the superlative degree expresses the greatest or least amount

or intensity of a quality that is found among all the objects compared; as, the *tallest* man in the company; the *saddest* story I ever heard; the *best* book I ever read; the *most important* item; the *least objectionable* method.

Modes of Comparison

I. Regular Comparison. — Adjectives are regularly compared in two different ways, as follows:

1. **Comparison by the Suffixes** *er* and *est.* — Monosyllables and some dissyllables form the comparative by adding to the positive the suffix *er*, and the superlative by adding *est;* as, sad, *sadder*, *saddest;* hot, *hotter*, *hottest;* wild, *wilder*, *wildest;* pleasant, *pleasanter*, *pleasantest.*

(*a*) When the positive ends in mute *e*, the final *e* is dropped before adding *er* or *est;* as, brave, *braver*, *bravest;* simple, *simpler*, *simplest.*

(*b*) When the positive is a monosyllable ending in a single consonant preceded by a single vowel, the final consonant is doubled before *er* or *est;* as, big, *bigger*, *biggest;* red, *redder*, *reddest.*

(*c*) When the positive is a dissyllable ending in *le*, the comparative and superlative are formed, as with monosyllables, by adding *er* and *est*, dropping the mute *e* before the suffix; as, able, *abler*, *ablest;* noble, *nobler*, *noblest.*

(*d*) When the positive ends in *y* preceded by a consonant, the comparative and superlative are formed, as with monosyllables, by adding *er* and *est*, but changing the *y* into *i* before the suffix; as, dry, *drier*, *driest;* lovely, *lovelier*, *loveliest;* silly, *sillier*, *silliest.* *Shy* and *sly* may retain the *y*.

(*e*) When the positive is a dissyllable accented on the last syllable, the comparative and superlative are formed by adding *er* and *est* exactly as to monosyllables; as, genteel, *genteeler*, *genteelest;* polite, *politer*, *politest;* severe, *severer*, *severest.* (There is, however, no objection to comparing such adjectives by *more* and *most*, and this method is often preferred.)

(*f*) Various other dissyllabic adjectives are also compared by

er and *est*, according to no very definite rule; as, bitter, *bitterer*, *bitterest;* clever, *cleverer*, *cleverest;* cruel, *crueller*, *cruellest;* handsome, *handsomer*, *handsomest;* tender, *tenderer*, *tenderest.*

The correct usage in such words can be learned only by careful study of the dictionary and of the best authors.

(*g*) Participles used as adjectives, or adjectives of similar form, do not now take *er* and *est;* we do not say "tireder," "willinger," "learnedest," though similar usage was common in Shakespeare's time. Instead, we say, "more tired," "more willing," "most learned," etc.

2. **Comparison by Adverbs,** *more* and *most*, *less* and *least.* — Adjectives of more than one syllable (except as noted in the preceding section) generally form their comparative and superlative by prefixing to the positive the adverbs *more* and *most* or *less* and *least.*

(*a*) *Comparison in the ascending series*, as it is called, by *more* and *most*, is that chiefly used with such words; as, *more* intelligent; *more* competent; *most* satisfactory; *most* unusual.

This method may be often interchanged with that in *er* and *est*, and we may say either "commoner" or "more common," "commonest" or "most common," etc.

When two or more adjectives are connected by *and*, the adverb *more* or *most* may be prefixed to the whole series, even though one or more of the words would ordinarily be compared by *er* or *est;* as, He was the *most* wise, learned, and eloquent of men.

For emphasis or euphony, especially in poetry, *more* or *most* may be employed where *er* or *est* would ordinarily be used; as, "Never was friend *more* true."

(*b*) *Comparison in the descending series*, indicating a diminishing amount or intensity of a quality, is only made by prefixing to the positive the adverbs *less* and *least;* as, he was *less* estimable; that method would be *least* objectionable.*

* Such forms as *smaller*, *smallest*, *weaker*, *weakest*, might seem at first thought to be in the descending series, but on reflection it will be seen that they really affirm *more* or *most* of the quality of smallness, weakness, etc., and are hence in the ascending scale, differing altogether from such

II. Irregular Comparison. — The following adjectives are irregularly compared, the comparative or superlative or both, being supplied from other forms than the one now used as the positive, or one or more of the parts being now altogether wanting in adjectival use.

Full explanation of these peculiarities is not within the province of an elementary grammar. For all practical purposes it is enough for the student to learn the facts of correct usage.

The irregular forms are:

Positive	*Comparative*	*Superlative*
bad, evil, ill	worse	worst
far	farther, further*	farthest, furthest
good, well	better	best
hind	hinder	hindermost, hindmost
(in, *adv.*)	inner	innermost, inmost
late	later, latter	latest, last
little	less, lesser	least
many, much	more	most
old	elder, older	eldest, oldest
(out, *adv.*)	outer	outermost, outmost
(up, *adv.*)	upper	uppermost, upmost

expressions as *less* excellent, *least* important, where the quality expressed by the adjective is diminished in the comparison. Comparison by *er* and *est* is always ascending.

* NOTE. — *Further* and *furthest* are originally from the adverb *forth*, but are now used as regular comparative and superlative of the adjective *far*.

REMARKS

We have, thus, in English a very small list of irregularly compared adjectives, not exceeding twenty-five, all told. A few others might be added that have ceased to be recognized as comparatives or superlatives; as, *first*, which is strictly the superlative of *fore;* or *next*, generally considered as the superlative of *near* or *nigh;* but as these words are seldom thought of with reference to comparison, but used directly for their own independent meaning, it seems needless to list them as parts of a comparative system.

Where two forms of the comparative or superlative are found, difference of meaning or use may accompany difference of form.

Thus *farther*, *farthest*, commonly refer to physical distance; *further* and *furthest*, while they may be so used, are oftener applied to advance or reach of thought; as, "This *further* argument is to be considered." *Later* and *latest* are used directly of time; *latter* and *last* of succession in order. *Elder* and *eldest* denote superiority in age without the implication of being *old;* but *older* and *oldest* imply more of the qualities indicated by the positive *old;* the *elder* or *eldest* son or daughter may still be very young; this distinction, however, is not always closely observed.

A Special Superlative in *most*. — A number of adjectives having the effect of superlatives are formed by adding the suffix *most* to the positive of an adjective, to an adverb, or even to a noun used adjectively; as, *foremost*, *endmost*, *midmost*, *topmost*, etc. In such cases usually no comparative degree exists.

Adjectives without Comparison

The Numerals (p. 99) and the Articles (p. 101) do not admit of comparison.

Adjectives denoting material, geographical position, etc., are as a rule not compared.

Adjectives expressing some quality that does not admit of degrees are not compared when used in their strict or full sense; as, *square*, *perpendicular*, *circular*, *absolute*, *eternal*, *illimitable*, *complete*, *perfect*, etc.

But such adjectives are often used in a modified or approximate sense, and when so used admit of comparison.

If we say, "This is *more perfect* than that," we do not mean that either is perfect without limitation, but that "this" has "more" of the qualities that go to make up perfection than "that;" it is *more nearly* perfect.* We sometimes say, "more than *enough*."

SECTION V

USES OF THE COMPARATIVE AND SUPERLATIVE

(*a*) **The Comparative Excludes.** — The Comparative holds its object separate from the object or objects compared. When we say, "*This* is better than *that*," we imply that "this" is separate and distinct from "that;" nothing of "this" must be included in "that," if they are to be compared by the comparative degree.

Hence it is an error to say, "I like *this* better than *anything*," because "anything" includes "this;" "this" is part of "anything;"

* MAETZNER (*English Grammar*, vol. i, p. 282) remarks: "Here an absolute rule does not suffice. The superlative, especially, in spite of the censure of grammarians, is used to strengthen the meaning conveyed by the positive, and even comparatives are not wanting which seem to mock the literal conception. . . . Nothing is more common than the employment of *chiefest*, *extremest*, which the narrowmindedness of grammarians rejects, who rather have to contemplate the mode of viewing things represented by the living language than to fix limits to it.

'The *perfectest* herald of joy.'
SHAKESPEARE *Much Ado about Nothing*.

'Hail! *divinest* Melancholy.' MILTON.

'No discord in the three,
But the *most perfect* harmony.' LONGFELLOW."

we should say, "I like *this* better than *anything else;*" the "else" separates "this" from the rest of "anything," and they can then be compared. Similarly, it is an error to say, "*This* storm is worse than *any* I ever saw," because you have seen "this storm," of which you speak; hence "this" is included in "any;" you must separate it from the class in order to compare it, and say, "*This* storm is worse than *any other* I ever saw." The latter expression is correct, because "other" is a separating word.

(*b*) **The Superlative Includes.** — The Superlative views its object as one of the objects compared; it is in the same class or group. Thus, when we say, "*This* is the best of *all* the apples," we mean that "this" is one of "all," and we might say with perfect propriety, "This is the best *among* all the apples." The superlative should be used only when its object is thus one of the objects compared.

Hence Milton erred in his famous lines:

> Adam, the goodliest man *of men since born*
> *His sons;* the fairest *of her daughters,* Eve.
> *Paradise Lost,* bk. iv, l. 323.

For Adam was not one of the "men since born," nor one of his own "sons," and could not be included among them; nor was Eve one of her own "daughters." A good test for the use of the superlative is whether we could use after it "among" in place of "of," and say, "the best *among,*" "the greatest *among,*" etc. If so, the superlative is correct; if not, we should use the comparative.

(*c*) **Two or More Than Two.** — The comparative refers only to *two* objects or sets of objects, while the superlative ordinarily refers to *more than two.*

This is not, however, an invariable rule. The superlative indicates an object as at the head of its class or group. But two objects may constitute a class or group, and one of the two may be

thought of as surpassing all else in that class or group, without any reference to the number. Hence the expression, "This is the *best* of the *two*" is the most forcible that can be employed, and is always used by persons who have not been carefully taught to avoid it. This very natural and forcible usage is now approved and followed by many good authors, though "This is the *better* of the *two*" is ordinarily regarded as more elegant by careful speakers and writers.*

(*d*) ***Than* after Comparatives.** — The Comparative is always followed by *than* before the object of the comparison; as, better *than* this; greater *than* that. (Foreigners sometimes use "as" in place of "than," saying, "better *as* this" or "greater *as* that," which can never be correct English.)

(*e*) ***Of* after Superlatives.** — The Superlative is commonly followed by *of* before its object; as, the best *of* all. But *among*, *in*, *within*, or some other inclusive preposition may be used equally well; as, He was foremost *among* his contemporaries; this building is the highest *in* the city.

* MAETZNER (*English Grammar*, vol. iii, p. 285) speaks on this matter as follows:

"The superlative is disapproved of by many grammarians where the totality does not exceed duality, although it is not avoided by the language.

'The question is not whether a good Indian or bad Englishman be *most happy*, but which state is *most desirable*, supposing virtue and reason to be the same in both.'

JOHNSON *Life of Sir Francis Drake.*

'Her mother seemed the *youngest* of the two.'

THACKERAY in v. Dalen Gr., p. 255.

'And the *best half* should have been returned to him.'

SHAKESPEARE *Timon of Athens*, act iii, sc. 2.

"However natural and usual the comparative is in this case, the superlative is not absurd, in which the duality is disregarded, and the object attributively determined is denoted as affected with the quality *in the highest degree in the class*, which is treated as numerically indifferent."

SECTION VI

THE NUMERALS

Numerals are numbering adjectives. They are of two classes, Cardinals and Ordinals.

(*a*) The Cardinals, or Cardinal Numeral Adjectives, indicate number absolutely, without reference to position or relation; as, *ten* apples; *fifty* dollars. They are as follows:

1.	one	19.	nineteen
2.	two	20.	twenty
3.	three	21,	etc., twenty-one, etc.
4.	four	30.	thirty
5.	five	40.	forty
6.	six	50.	fifty
7.	seven	60.	sixty
8.	eight	70.	seventy
9.	nine	80.	eighty
10.	ten	90.	ninety
11.	eleven	100.	one hundred
12.	twelve	101,	etc., one hundred and one, etc.
13.	thirteen	1000.	one thousand
14.	fourteen	1100.	one thousand, one hundred (or, eleven hundred)
15.	fifteen		
16.	sixteen	10,000.	ten thousand
17.	seventeen	1,000,000.	one million
18.	eighteen	1,000,000,000.	one billion [*U. S.*]

Numerals, like other adjectives, are freely used as nouns; as, I will take *five;* more than a *hundred* were present.

A cardinal numeral, used as a noun, may or may not take the article, according to the meaning to be expressed; as,

Were not the *ten* cleansed? but where are *the nine?—Luke* 17: 17.

A cardinal numeral, used as a noun, may take the plural form;* as, a *thousand* of brick; *tens* of *thousands* of dollars; *millions* of inhabitants.

> *Millions* of spiritual creatures walk the earth
> Unseen, both when we wake, and when we sleep.
> MILTON *Paradise Lost*, bk. iv, l. 678.

(*b*) The Ordinals, or Ordinal Numeral Adjectives, indicate, not absolute number, but numbered position in a series; as, the *fifth* chapter; the *hundredth* meridian. They are, corresponding to the cardinals:

first	twelfth	thirtieth
second	thirteenth	fortieth
third	fourteenth	fiftieth
fourth	fifteenth	sixtieth
fifth	sixteenth	seventieth
sixth	seventeenth	eightieth
seventh	eighteenth	ninetieth
eighth	nineteenth	hundredth
ninth	twentieth	thousandth
tenth	twenty-first, etc.	millionth, etc.
eleventh		

To express an ordinal number by a figure, *d* or *th* is added to the figure, according to the sound to be represented; as, 2*d*, 3*d*, 4*th*, etc. Such a form is not an abbreviation and does not require to be followed by a period.

A date written in full is expressed by an ordinal number; as, the *twenty-fifth* of December. When figures are employed for the date, in modern usage, no indication of the ordinal is written; as,

* DISTINCTION. — A numeral preceding and qualifying a *noun* is used as an adjective and of course takes no plural; as, *ten thousand* men. A numeral used without a noun is itself treated as a noun, and may take the plural form; as, *tens* of *thousands* of men.

Dec. 25, 1908. This, however, is read, "December *twenty-fifth*," or, by very precise persons, "December *the twenty-fifth*."

When the ordinal is used as a noun, it commonly takes the definite article; as, Four men were present, but the *fifth* was absent.

The ordinal is regularly used as a noun to express the denominator of a fraction, and in such use may be either singular or plural, and may be used with or without an article, according to the meaning to be expressed; as, an *eighth* is more than a *tenth*. A cardinal numeral expressing the numerator of a fraction is joined by a hyphen to the ordinal expressing the denominator; as, *three-fourths; seven-eighths*. Where the denominator is *two* (2), it is read *half;* as, *one-half* (½).

SECTION VII

THE ARTICLE

The Articles, like the numerals, are limiting adjectives; they do not describe, but do limit, any noun to which either of them may be applied.

Articles are never applied to pronouns, except in the rare cases when a pronoun is used as a noun; as, The "it" is here quite indefinite; the word "it" being used, not as a pronoun, but as a noun, the name of a word.

There are two Articles, the Indefinite and the Definite.

1. The **Indefinite Article.** — The Indefinite Article is *a* or *an*, which are but different forms of a single word, varied for the sake of euphony.

An is the original, and *a* the abbreviated form. *An* is from the Anglo-Saxon *an*, "one," originally a numeral adjective. It has, however, lost its force as a numeral, and simply indicates an individual, with no reference to counting or numbering.

The form *a* is used before words beginning with a consonant *sound* (however spelled), and the form *an* before words beginning with a vowel *sound* (however spelled); as, *a* man; *a* woman; *a* horse; *a* unit; *an* apple; *an* orange; *an* honor; *an* error; *an* engine.

Words like *one*, *unit*, *university*, though written with an opening vowel, are spoken as if beginning with a consonant, being pronounced *wun*, *yunit*, *yuniversity;* hence they take the form *a* of the indefinite article. Words like *heir*, *honor*, *hour*, though written with an opening consonant (*h*), are spoken as if beginning with a vowel, as *air*, *onor*, *our;* hence they take the form *an* of the indefinite article.

The same rule holds when any adjective comes between the article and its noun. If the adjective begins with a consonant *sound*, the article *a* is used before it, and if it begins with a vowel *sound*, the article *an* is used, — whatever the following noun might require. Thus we say, "*an* apple," but "*a* good apple;" "*a* pocket," but "*an* empty pocket;" "*an* honor," but "*a* great honor;" "*a* man," but "*an* honest man."

A or *an* indicates any one of a class of objects without choice or discrimination; as, Take *a* chair (any chair); Bring me *a* book (any book). Hence *a* or *an* has received the name of the Indefinite Article.

Caution. — The article *an* must not be confused with the conjunction *and*, as is done by many ill-educated persons.

2. The **Definite Article.** — This is the simple word *the*, always the same in all situations and under all conditions; as, *the* king; *the* beggar; *the* wise man; *the* fool; *The* dog is mine; I see *the* dog.

While it undergoes no change of form, the article *the* has a euphonic difference of pronunciation, according as it precedes a

vowel or a consonant sound (however spelled). Before a vowel sound, the final *e* has its long sound, like *ee* in sw*ee*t; as, th*e* apple; th*e* honest witness. Before a consonant sound, the *e* becomes obscure, and is sounded like the final *a* of sof*a*; as, th*e* book; th*e* house; th*e* foolish boy.

The always indicates a definite object, either:

(*a*) An object so well known as not to need to be described; as, *The* man is here (the man we know and have been expecting or seeking); This is *the* book (which has been referred to or inquired for).

(*b*) An object about to be described, the word *the* pointing on to a description to come; as, *The* story which I am about to relate is a sad one; This is *the* house in which I was born; *The* lesson which we are now studying is not difficult.

(*c*) An object emphatically designated, as if the only one worthy of consideration; as, He made *the* speech (preëminently) of the occasion.

In the specific use, a noun preceded by the article *the* often indicates a whole class or species; as, *The* dog is a useful animal; *The* dahlia is beautiful, but not fragrant.

Man or *woman*, however, is used in the general or generic way without the article; as, *Man* can adapt himself to any climate.

Man without the article may be used in two distinct senses: (1) As denoting all mankind, including women and children; as, *Man* is mortal; (2) As denoting male human beings as a class, so contrasted with *woman;* as, *Man* is more adventurous, *woman* more domestic.

Adjectives with *The* Used as Nouns. — The definite article *the*, used with an adjective alone, gives to the adjective the effect of a noun which may be either singular or plural in meaning, according to the connection of words in the sentence; as, *The good* (goodness) is more important than *the beautiful* (beauty);

or, *The good* (good people) are commonly also *the happy* (happy people).*

***Many* and *Few* with the Article.** — The English language has certain peculiar idioms in the use of *many* and *few*.

The very common expression *many a*, used before a noun, has the effect of a plural, though properly used with a singular verb; as, *Many a* man was afraid that day. This is equivalent to saying, "Many men were afraid," but has a special force by seeming to single out the men individually, one by one. So we say, *many a* day, *many a* time, etc.

The expression, *the many*, signifies the greater number of people, most people; *the few* indicates some limited or exclusive class.

The expressions, *a great many*, *a few*, etc., like collective nouns, take a plural verb or may be referred to by a plural pronoun; as, *A great many* are missing; *A few* answered to their names. The phrase *a few* denotes a more considerable number than the simple adjective *few;* as, *A few* were found by careful search; *few* were ever found.

POSITION OF THE ARTICLE

The article always precedes its noun; as, *a* man; *an* hour; *the* tree. (See p. 89 (8) for an exception.)

When some other adjective precedes the noun, the regular order is: article, adjective, noun; as, *a* ripe apple; *the* swift stream; *the* ten men.

Exceptions. — After *how*, *so*, and *too*, the order is: adjective, article, noun; as, *How sad a* story; *so* merry *a* company; *too* harsh *a* judgment.

When the adjective follows its noun, it may carry the article with it; as, Alexander *the* Great.

See above, Many and Few with the Article.

* Note. — That an adjective so used still retains its adjective character in our thought is shown at once by asking some question about it. "The *best* is the *cheapest*." Question, "Best what?" Answer, "The *best* thing, — the *best* goods." Some noun is promptly supplied, the adjective taking its place *as an adjective* with that noun.

SECTION VIII

To Parse an Adjective. — State:

1. That it is an Adjective, and why (definition of adjective);

2. Class (descriptive or limiting: — if numeral or article, that fact to be specified), and why;

3. Degree of comparison (compare it);

4. Noun or pronoun which it describes or limits.

Examples

I. A *good* boy is *respectful.*

good is a descriptive adjective; of the positive degree, irregularly compared (positive, *good*, comparative, *better*, superlative, *best*); attributive, as joined directly to the noun *boy* which it modifies.

respectful is a descriptive adjective; positive degree; comparison regular (by adverbs, *more* and *most;* positive, *respectful*, comparative, *more respectful*, superlative, *most respectful*); a predicate adjective, because used in the predicate to modify the noun *boy*, which is the subject of the sentence.

II. *An* elephant is *a* large animal, and one of *the* most intelligent.

A, *an*, and *the* are forms of the adjective called the article; they belong to the class of limiting adjectives, and are parsed as follows:

an is an indefinite article; the form used before vowel sounds (see p. 102); denoting one individual of a class indefinitely; limits or modifies *elephant.*

a is an indefinite article;* the form used before consonant sounds (see p. 102); denoting one individual of a class indefinitely; limits or modifies *animal.*

* Note. — The full statement would be, "*a* is a limiting adjective called the indefinite article," but when the fact is clearly understood, the statement need not be every time repeated.

the is the definite article, denoting one or more individuals of a class definitely; limits or modifies the plural noun *animals* (understood).

III. *The brave* love mercy.

The is the definite article, and limits the adjective *brave* used as a noun.

brave is an adjective used as a noun, to denote the individuals of a class collectively, hence taking a plural verb.

IV. *Ten* cents make a dime.

Ten is a limiting adjective, classed as a cardinal numeral; attributive; modifies or limits the noun *cents*.

V. John's house is *larger* than William's.

larger is a descriptive adjective; comparative degree (comparison regular by suffix; positive, *large*, comparative, *larger*, superlative, *largest*); a predicate adjective, modifying the subject *house*.

EXERCISE 21

Point out and parse all adjectives, including numerals and articles, in the following extracts. Note the instances where the use of the article gives to the adjective the force of a noun. Note comparatives and superlatives.

A moral, sensible, and well-bred man
Will not affront me, and no other can.

COWPER *Conversation*, l. 193.

Life is not so short but that there is always time enough for courtesy.

EMERSON *Social Aims*.

How sweet and gracious, even in common speech,
Is that fine sense which men call courtesy!

JAMES T. FIELDS *Courtesy*.

A foot more light, a step more true,
Ne'er from the heath-flower dashed the dew.
SCOTT *Lady of the Lake*, can. i, st. 18.

And brown is the papaw's shade-blossoming cup,
In the wood near the sun-loving maize.
WILLIAM FOSDICK *The Maize.*

On one side is a field of drooping oats,
Through which the poppies show their scarlet coats.
KEATS *Epistle to My Brother George.*

Here bloom red roses, dewy wet,
And beds of fragrant mignonette.
ELAINE GOODALE *Thistles and Roses.*

The crimson blossoms of the coral-tree
In the warm isles of India's sunny sea.
MOORE *Lalla Rookh.*

None but the brave deserve the fair.
DRYDEN *Alexander's Feast*, st. 1.

For pity makes the world
Soft to the weak and noble for the strong.
EDWIN ARNOLD *Light of Asia*, bk. v, l. 401.

Nations shall not quarrel then
To prove which is the stronger.
CHARLES MACKAY *The Good Time Coming.*

The reasoning of the strongest is always the best.
LA FONTAINE *Fables.*

But all was false and hollow; though his tongue
Dropped manna, and could make the worse appear
The better reason.
MILTON *Paradise Lost*, bk. ii, l. 112.

And the best half should have been returned to him.
SHAKESPEARE *Timon of Athens*, act iii, sc. 2.

THE VERB

SECTION I

DEFINITION AND EXPLANATION

A verb is a word expressing action; as, I *run; Come* to me.

The action expressed may be outward action; as, *walk, run, ride, go, come, look, see, call, shout,* etc.; or the action may be only a movement of the mind; as, *be, exist, remain, endure.*

Verbs of the latter class are said to express being or state, but they express this being or state in the form of mental action.

Every one feels the difference between the two following expressions:

The value of time.
Time *is* valuable.

In the first group of words, "value" is a substance-word (a *substantive* or *noun*) expressing a thing which the mind considers. In this group of words we do not have a complete thought; hence they do not form a sentence.

In the second group of words we have a complete thought. The mind moves from the noun "time" to the adjective "valuable," which expresses a quality of "time," and the word "is" expresses that mental motion. We have gone from the noun "time" to the adjective "valuable," and we have also connected the two. The verb "is" forms a kind of bridge by which the mind's

action goes over, and which also holds the two ideas together. We might indicate this to the eye as follows:

Time *is* valuable.

The verb can express time, and time always indicates action or movement. No noun, pronoun, or adjective expresses time. *House, rock, tree, I, he, they, good, bad, beautiful,* tell nothing of time. But the *verb* does tell of time. We may say:

The house { *was* / *is* / *will be* } beautiful.

He { *was* / *is* / *will be* } good.

There the mind acts in either of three different ways between the noun or pronoun and the adjective, according as we take the verb in the top, middle, or lowest line. So the verb is both the action-word and the time-word.*

No sentence can be made without a verb. The little child says, "Cake good;" he tells after a fashion, what he means; but he has not made a sentence. We say, "Cake *is* good;" then by the *verb*, we have completed the thought and made a sentence.

The word *verb* is derived from the Latin *verbum*, "word." This part of speech was so called because it was felt to be the most important *word*, — preëminently *the word*.

The noun is dead mass or substance; the adjective is mere quality or description; the *verb* adds movement, action; by the *verb* language becomes alive.

EXERCISE 22

Find all the verbs in Exercises 19 and 21 (pp. 83, 106).

* NOTE. — This will be more fully explained under TENSES. Verbs alone have tenses, or time-forms.

SECTION II

CLASSES OF VERBS

I. Transitive and Intransitive Verbs. — Verbs are divided according to their relation to objects into two classes: (1) Transitive and (2) Intransitive.

(1) A Transitive Verb is a verb that takes an object; as, *Bring* that book.

(2) An Intransitive Verb is a verb that does not need or cannot take an object; as, The tree *falls*.

The word *transitive* is derived from the Latin *transeo*, *transire*, "go over." It is used to designate a verb whose action, performed by a subject, *passes over* and is exerted upon some person or thing as its object; as, "The engine *draws the train*." In this sentence, the verb "draws" is transitive, because its action *passes over to* and is exerted upon the object,* "train." An *intransitive* verb (*in* signifying "not") is a verb *not transitive*, that is, a verb whose action is *not* exerted upon an object; or, as we commonly say, a verb that does not take an object; as, The train *stops*.

Verbs Both Transitive and Intransitive. — Numerous verbs are used both transitively and intransitively according to the meaning to be conveyed; as,

He is *studying* his lesson (transitive);
He is *studying*, — *i.e.* engaged in study (intransitive).

Verbs Made Transitive by Prepositions. — An intransitive verb may acquire transitive force when accompanied by a preposition; as, to *laugh at*, to *attend to*, etc. As transitive forms such combinations may be used in the

* NOTE. — In such a sentence as, "This *is* the man," the verb "is" carries the thought over to "man" (as previously explained) but does not *act upon* "man." "Man" is not the *object* of "is," but a predicate nominative. A transitive verb carries its meaning over to an *object*.

passive voice; as, The boy *was laughed at;* The matter *will be attended to.*

II. Principal and Auxiliary Verbs. — Verbs are divided as to their use into two classes: (1) Principal Verbs and (2) Auxiliary Verbs.

(1) A **Principal Verb** is one that expresses by itself some act or state, or, if in combination with some other verb, expresses the leading thought of the combination; as, I *read;* I will *go.*

(2) An **Auxiliary Verb** is one that is joined to a principal verb in order to express the action or state of that principal verb in a certain manner or time; as, I *will* run; I *can* read; I *shall* go.

An auxiliary verb does not express a complete idea by itself; as, *can*, *may*, *must*, *shall*, *will.*

If any one says, "I *will*," "I *may*," "I *can*," "I *must*," we cannot tell from those words alone what action he has in mind. We may supply a principal verb from something said before; if not, we ask, "*will* what?" "*may* what?" "*can* what?" "*must* what?" We get no clear idea until he adds some other verb to his "*will*," "*may*," "*can*," or "*must*."

The auxiliary verbs are: *be*, *can*, *do*, *have*, *may*, *must*, *shall*, and *will.*

The auxiliaries *be*, *do*, *have*, and *will*, may each be used also as principal verbs; as, I *do* much hard work; I *have* an apple; Time *is* money.

When *be*, *do*, *have*, and *will* are used as principal verbs, they may (like other principal verbs) take auxiliaries; as, I *will do* the work; I *shall have* the money.

III. Regular and Irregular Verbs. — Verbs are divided as to their changes of form (or inflection) into (1) Regular and (2) Irregular Verbs.

(1) **Regular Verbs** form the past tense and past participle by adding *ed* to the simple form of the verb; as, (present) *laugh;* (past) *laughed;* (past participle) *laughed.*

When the simple form of the verb ends in mute *e*, the mute *e* is dropped before adding *ed ;* as, *love*, *loved ; change*, *changed.*

(2) **Irregular Verbs** form the past tense and past participle otherwise than by adding *ed;* as, (present) *give;* (past) *gave;* (past participle) *given.*

Remarks

By calling verbs conjugated with *ed*, "regular," it is not meant that the form in *ed* is more suitable or correct than the forms that differ from it. "Regular," as derived from the Latin *regula*, a "rule," signifies "according to the prevailing *rule* or custom."

Out of at least 8,000 verbs in the English language, all but about 200* form their past tense and past participle by adding *ed* to the root form. Every new verb is at once and without question so conjugated; as, *corral*, *corraled; lasso*, *lassoed; telegraph*, *telegraphed.*

All verbs not conjugated according to this prevailing rule are called *irregular*. A list of Irregular Verbs with their principal parts will be found at p. 180, and should be carefully committed to memory, and referred to in any case of doubt.

Substitute Terms

Strong, *weak; old*, *new; ancient*, *modern.* — Some grammarians prefer to call verbs that change a vowel of the root form, as of "give" to "gave," *strong* verbs, or verbs of the *strong conjugation*, and to call those that add an ending, as *d* or *ed*, to the unchanged root form, *weak* verbs, or verbs of the *weak conjugation*. This division may interest philologists, but gives no light or

* Note. — The list at pp. 180–184 contains 215 Irregular Verbs.

help to the learner.* Hence these terms are not there employed. The same is true of the terms *old* and *new*, *ancient* and *modern*.

Verbs in Simplified Spelling. — Some of the regular forms in *ed* are pronounced as if ending in *t;* as *stretched*, *stretcht*. This pronunciation occurs where *ed* follows the sound (however spelled) of *ch*, *f*, *k*, *p*, *s*, *sh*, or *x;* as, *punched*, *puffed*, *laughed*, *backed*, *whipped*, *passed*, *pushed*, *vexed*.

In what is called the Simplified Spelling these words are spelled as pronounced; as, *puncht*, *puft*, *laft*, *bakt*, *whipt*, *past*, *pusht*, *vext*. (See LIST OF VERBS IN SIMPLIFIED SPELLING, p. 184.)

But as this indicates merely a phonetic difference, such verbs will still be treated as Regular, and not formed into a separate class. A few old forms where the spelling in *t* goes with a change in pronunciation of the root vowel, as *leapt* (pronounced *lept*), are given under IRREGULAR VERBS. (See p. 180.)

Verbs of Complete and of Incomplete Predication. — In sentence-construction we have a further division of verbs, nearly but not quite the same as the division into transitive and intransitive, viz.:

(1) **Verbs of Complete Predication,** any one of which can by itself make a complete predicate; as, The boy *runs*.

(2) **Verbs of Incomplete Predication,** no one of which

* NOTE. — Of this distinction an eminent philologist says: "It is unfortunate that terms so fanciful should have been sanctioned by such high authority and so generally adopted by grammarians. Had the two modes been called respectively, *old* and *new*, the names would have expressed a historical fact, or at least a probable theory, but it would be easy to assign as sound and as obvious reasons for designating the two classes of variation by ascribing to them color or weight, and for calling them *black* or *white*, or *heavy* and *light*, as those alleged for the use of the terms *strong* and *weak*. It certainly could not have been difficult to invent appellations more appropriate in character, and *it is to be regretted that the difficulties of grammatical science should be augmented by increasing the number of fallacious terms in its vocabulary*." — GEORGE P. MARSH, *Lectures on the English Language*, lect. xv, p. 335.

can by itself make a complete predicate; as, That *seems* —; The Romans *destroyed* —; where we at once ask for something to complete the sentence: What or how does that *seem?* What did the Romans *destroy?*

The verb *be*, as used with a predicate nominative, is a verb of incomplete predication, as are various other intransitive verbs. See THE COPULA and COPULATIVE VERBS, p. 291.

SECTION III

PROPERTIES OF VERBS

The properties of verbs are *Voice, Mode, Tense, Person,* and *Number.*

I. VOICE

Voice is that form of the Transitive Verb that shows whether the subject acts or is acted upon.

(1) **The Active Voice.** — When the subject of a verb is represented as acting, the verb is said to be in the Active Voice; as, The sun *attracts* the earth.

(2) **The Passive Voice.** — When the subject of the verb is represented as acted upon, the verb is said to be in the Passive Voice; as, The earth *is attracted* by the sun.

The Passive Voice of any verb is formed by adding the past participle of that verb to the various forms of the verb *be.* (See under CONJUGATION, p. 160.)

The distinction of Voice belongs only to Transitive Verbs (see p. 110) or to verbs used transitively.

The Active and Passive Forms Compared. — The same thought may be expressed by the active or by the passive

voice, with difference only in the form of statement. Compare the two following sentences:

(1) The engine *draws* the train.

(2) The train is *drawn* by the engine.

The essential thought in both these sentences is the same. In both the "engine" *performs the act of drawing*, and "the train" *receives motion* from the "engine."

The sentences differ, however, in form. In the first sentence "engine" is the subject; in the second, "train" is the subject; in the first sentence the subject "engine" is spoken of as *doing something*, — producing motion; in the second, the subject "train" is represented not as doing anything, but as *receiving motion* from another object, the "engine."

This distinction of meaning is called a distinction of *voice*. The verb "draws" is in the *active voice*, and the verb "is drawn" is in the *passive voice*.

A sentence may be changed from the active to the passive form by making the object of the verb in the active form the subject of the verb in the passive form; and the subject of the verb in the active form the object of the preposition *by*. For example, "The boy *broke* the pitcher" (active); "The pitcher *was broken by* the boy" (passive).

II. MODE

Mode is a form of the verb that indicates the manner in which the action or state expressed by the verb is to be regarded.*

The word *mode* means "manner;" as, I like his *mode* of living.

* NOTE. — Some grammarians prefer to use the word *mood*, which signifies a mental state; as, "He was in a melancholy *mood*." When this word is used it implies the state of mind with which the person speaking uses the verb. Either *mode* or *mood* may be used, since good authority may be quoted for either term. The general preference among grammarians is now for the term *mode*.

A verb may express action or state as real or only imaginary or supposable, as a fact, or as a command.

The action or state may be regarded as

(1) A fact, denoting something real, either in affirmation, denial, or question (Indicative Mode);

(2) A mere thought or supposition (Subjunctive Mode);

(3) A possibility or necessity (Potential Mode);

(4) A command or wish (Imperative Mode);

(5) A mere expression of action or state without any definite limitation (Infinitive Mode).

The Five Modes. — Hence, there are five modes; namely,

The Indicative, the Subjunctive, the Potential, the Imperative, and the Infinitive.

1. The **Indicative Mode** indicates action or state spoken of as real. A verb in the indicative mode deals with action or state in the form of fact, either affirming it to be a fact, denying it to be a fact, or questioning whether it is or is not a fact; as, I *live here;* It *is* not cold; *Is* this book yours?

2. The **Subjunctive Mode** denotes an action or state as supposed or imagined, — as something that may or may not be a fact, or may even be contrary to fact; as, If I *go*, I shall go alone; If I *were* you, I would not go. The subjunctive mode is used in conditional or dependent sentences.

If, though, lest, unless, that, till, or a similar word generally precedes and indicates the subjunctive mode; as, "*if* I *were;*" "*if* I *had known.*" By placing the verb

or its auxiliary before the subject, the conditional word may be omitted; as, *Had* I *been* there (i.e. *If* I *had been* here), it would not have happened.

3. **The Potential Mode** expresses wish, entreaty, possibility, or necessity. The possibility of the potential mode is not a mere supposition, as in the subjunctive, but is viewed as something likely to be true or to take place; as, I *may go;* I *could have explained.*

The Potential Mode is expressed by the use of the auxiliaries *may, can, must, might, could, would,* or *should.* (See AUXILIARY VERBS.)

The conjunctions *if, though, lest, unless,* etc., are freely used with the potential as well as with the subjunctive mode; as, I will go, *though* I may be late; I would engage him, *if* I could trust him.

4. The **Imperative Mode** presents the action of the verb as a command, wish, permission, or the like; as, *Study* your lesson; *Have* pity upon me; *Go* in peace.

Imperative means "commanding," and this mode is so named because oftenest used to express command, though it has also the other uses mentioned.

5. The **Infinitive Mode** presents the action or state of the verb as not limited by connection with a subject, as verbs in the other modes are limited; as, *to go; to be.*

When we speak of the *infinitive* of a verb, without qualification, that is generally understood to be the *present infinitive* of the *active voice,* which is simply the root-form of the verb, with or without *to;* as, (to) *love;* (to) *give.*

To, as used with the infinitive (called by some the "sign" of the infinitive mode), was originally a preposition, and though it has now largely lost its prepositional force is still to be so classed.

The *to* of the infinitive is commonly omitted after the verbs *bid*, *dare*, *feel*, *hear*, *let*, *make*, *need*, and *see*, and also after all the auxiliaries. After the *passive voice* of such of the above-named verbs as may be used in the passive form, *to* is retained; as, He was heard *to* enter; He was seen *to* walk.

The infinitive without *to* is called the *pure infinitive.*

The root-form of the verb as used after the auxiliaries in the conjugations is the *pure* infinitive; as, I shall *love;* He will *call;* They may *give;* etc.

Uses of the Infinitive

The Infinitive has, to a great extent, the construction of a noun, or sometimes of an adjective or an adverb, while taking the modifiers of a verb.

This does not mean that the infinitive ever *becomes* a noun, an adjective, or an adverb. The infinitive continues always to be a *verb*, but it is *used like* one of the other parts of speech mentioned.

Like a finite verb the infinitive may be modified by an adverb or an adverbial phrase; as, to fly *swiftly*, to speak *gently*. Like a finite verb, the infinitive of a transitive verb may take an object in the objective case; as, to study a *lesson;* to tell the *truth.*

The same infinitive may take both an object and an adverbial modifier; as, to study *the lesson faithfully.*

Used as a **noun,** the infinitive may be:

1. The subject of a finite verb; as, *To lie* is shameful.

2. The object of a transitive verb or participle; as, I desire *to go;* Desiring *to go;* I intend *to start* immediately; I wish *to get* breakfast.

3. The object of a preposition; as, He is about *to go.*

4. A predicate nominative; as, To see is *to believe.*

5. The infinitive is sometimes used like an **adjective,** modifying a noun; as, a desire *to learn.**

6. The infinitive is often used **adverbially** to denote a purpose, a motive, or (after *so — as*, *than*, or *too*) to denote a result; as, Be so kind as *to inform* me; He is too honorable *to do* such a thing.

7. An infinitive phrase is often used as an independent element not in direct grammatical connection with other parts of the sentence, though affecting the general meaning; as, *To tell the truth*, I never believed in him.

The Subject of the Infinitive. — The infinitive may be used with or without a subject. When a subject is employed for the infinitive, the usage is the opposite of that for the finite verb (see NOUN, RULE 1, p. 44), and the subject of the infinitive is in the objective case; as, Do you wish *me* to go?

As the infinitive has neither number nor person, there is no question of agreement with its subject (compare RULE 1, p. 125).

The Infinitive Phrase. — In sentence construction the infinitive with its subject or other adjuncts is best treated as *an infinitive phrase*, and parsed as a single element (having the effect of noun, adjective, or adverb, as the case may be); such a phrase may then be analyzed, when desired, into its constituent elements.

The Split Infinitive. — Many grammarians hold that an adverb should never come between the sign of the infinitive *to* and the *verb* form; as, "to faithfully study." Others give this usage a qualified approval. It is found in some good authors, and is becoming very prevalent.

* NOTE. — Some grammarians treat this as an appositive use, considering the infinitive "to learn" as a noun in apposition with "desire."

"To an active mind it may be easier to bear along all the qualifications of an idea, than *to* first imperfectly *conceive* such idea, etc." HERBERT SPENCER *The Philosophy of Style*, pt. iii, par. 28.

The Finite Verb. — *Infinitive* means "unlimited." By contrast, the other forms of the verb are called "finite" or limited. Any form of the verb except the infinitive or participle is called a "*Finite* Verb."

III. TENSE

Tense is a form taken by a verb to indicate action in relation to time; as, I *live* here; He *went* home; I *will meet* you.

We may say in general terms that *a tense denotes the time of an action*, though sometimes it denotes rather its continuance or completeness in some relation of time.

Tenses Classified. — There are three great divisions of time, *past*, *present*, and *future*. In each of these divisions of time, an act may be viewed as simply occurring, or as completed or perfected.

A tense which expresses completed or perfected action, grammarians call *perfect*. Hence, the three divisions of time give us six *tenses*, viz.:

Present	Past	Future
Present Perfect	Past Perfect	Future Perfect

Present Time, strictly speaking, can denote but a moment of duration, yet longer periods, extending into both the future and the past, are often considered present; as when we say, the *present* day (this day, to-day), the *present* week (this week), the *present* century (this century), etc.

The **Present Tense** denotes an act that takes place or a condition or state that continues in present time; as, I *think;* It *rains;* That *is* true.

The **Present Perfect Tense** expresses action or state viewed as completed in or continued to the present time; as, I *have finished* this lesson; This *has been* a cold winter.

CAUTION. — Past action expressed by the Present Perfect must come up to, and touch the present. The Present Perfect cannot be used of an act that is wholly and only in the past. We cannot say, "I *have written* last year;" for that we must use the simple *past*, "I *wrote*." Hence the mistake of the foreigner, who says, "I *have come* to America five years ago." He should not use "have come" for an action that does not touch the present, but is "five years" removed. There he should use the simple past, "I came."

The **Past Tense** expresses action or state simply as belonging to past time; as, He *went* to town yesterday; The king *was* very powerful.

The **Past Perfect Tense** expresses action or state as completed at some specified past time, or before some specified past act; as, I *had finished* my work before you came.

We may say in general terms that the Past Perfect Tense denotes a past act as completed before some other past act occurred.

The Past Perfect Tense is formed by prefixing *had* to the Past Participle of any verb.

The **Future Tense** denotes action or state simply as occurring or existing in future time.

The Future Tense is formed by using *shall* or *will* with the root-form of any verb; as, I *shall* go, He *will* succeed.

The **Future Perfect Tense** denotes an action or state viewed as completed at some specified future time or before some specified future act; as, I *shall have finished* my lesson at ten o'clock; He *will have left* home before you arrive.

We may say in general terms that the Future Perfect Tense denotes a future act as one that will be completed before some other future act will occur.

The Future Perfect Tense is formed by adding *have* to the *shall* or *will* of the future tense; as, I *shall have* paid the money before the bank closes.

Let us now note once more the scheme of tenses as already given, viz.:

Present	Past	Future
Present Perfect	Past Perfect	Future Perfect

As read across the page we have three simple tenses, corresponding to the three divisions of time: *present, past, future;* then, in the next line, we have three *perfect tenses,* one in each division of time.

As read down the page we have three groups of two, denoting in each division of time an indefinite and a definite or "perfect" action: *present, present perfect; past, past perfect; future, future perfect.*

Filling out the scheme with a verb, we have:

Present	*Past*	*Future*
I write,	I wrote,	I shall write.
Present Perfect	*Past Perfect*	*Future Perfect*
I have written,	I had written,	I shall have written.

The six tenses are found complete only in the indicative mode.

Substitute Terms

Imperfect Tense. — Many grammarians have called the Past Tense the "Imperfect" Tense, because it does not express the completeness of the action at any definite time. But it seems better to name the tense from the *past time* which it expresses than from its particular *manner* of expressing that time.

Pluperfect Tense. — The Past Perfect Tense has been called the "Pluperfect," as an advance upon the Perfect Tense. This tense, however, is also best named from the *time* it denotes, the Past and Past Perfect thus filling the scheme of tenses with reference to the three great divisions of time.

Tenses in All Modes

1. The **Indicative Mode** has all *six tenses*, Present, Present Perfect, Past, Past Perfect, Future, and Future Perfect, as already explained.

2. The **Subjunctive Mode.** — In all verbs except the verb *be*, the Subjunctive Mode has but *two* tenses distinct from those of the Indicative, viz.: the Present and Present Perfect. The verb *be* has a distinct Past Tense in the Subjunctive.

For the Past and Past Perfect Subjunctive of all verbs except the verb *be*, the corresponding tenses of the Indicative Mode are used without change, and for the Past Perfect Subjunctive of the verb *be*, the Past Perfect Indicative is used without change.

3. The **Potential Mode** has *four tenses*, Present, Present Perfect, Past, and Past Perfect.

4. The **Imperative Mode** has but *one tense*, the Present.

5. The **Infinitive Mode** has *two tenses*, Present and Perfect.

IV. PERSON

The action or state expressed by a verb may be that of the person or persons speaking (first person), the person or persons spoken to (second person), or the person or persons spoken of (third person). According as it is used in one or other of these relations a verb is said to be of the *first, second,* or *third* person.

These differences of person, however, are but slightly recognized by the English verb. The verb, *be*, has a separate form, *am*, for the first person singular of the present indicative. No other verb in the English language has a special form for the first person. In all other verbs except *be*, the root-form of the verb is used for the first person singular in the present indicative, and the same form is used for all persons of the plural of that tense, as, I, we, you, they *love*. In the third person singular of the present indicative of most verbs a special form is used, generally made by adding *s* to the root-form of the verb; as, he *loves;* he *calls;* he *gives*. The verb *be* has "he *is*," and the verb *have* has for the third person "he *has*."

Second Person Singular Disused

The second person singular, in verbs, as well as in pronouns, has become practically obsolete in common speech (see *thou* under pronouns, p. 63). This entire usage, which may be termed "The Thou System" of verbs and pronouns, will accordingly be treated by itself in the chapter on "*The Ancient or Solemn Style*," p. 185. Hence, the second person singular of all modes and tenses of all verbs will be omitted in the present chapter, as a practically needless complication, and the accepted use of the language will be followed by giving the second person plural as the regular form to express the second person singular. By this treatment the person of the verb will be shown to be a very simple matter.

V. NUMBER

A verb may express action or state as that of one person or thing, or that of more than one. Hence arises the distinction of Number into *singular* and *plural*, as in the noun and pronoun — a distinction, however, that is but very slightly and partially indicated by the English verb.

Thus, the plural of *love* in all persons of the present and past tenses of the indicative is the same as that of the first person singular of the same tense, I, we, you, they *love;* I, we, you, they *loved.*

The verb *love* by itself gives no indication of number. It may be the act of one, I *love*, or of a multitude, they *love*, or of the whole human race, men *love.*

Remarks

1. This is very different in many other languages. In Latin, for instance, if we find the verb *amant* (the third person plural of *amo*, love), we know by its form that it is plural, and that somewhere there must be a plural nominative, expressed or understood, with which it agrees. In English, aside from the verb *be*, it is only in the third person singular of the present indicative (principal or auxiliary), that the number expressed by a verb can be known by its form. As a rule we must first find the subject of the verb, and then only can we tell whether the verb is singular or plural.

2. This tends greatly to that simplicity heretofore referred to. Whether a book was presented to me by a single friend or by a company of friends, after I give my nominative I do not need to bother about my verb, except to put it in the past tense:

My friend / My friends } *gave* me this book.

Either statement is equally correct grammatically.

Rule 1. — A finite verb must agree with its subject in person and number.

Whether its form is changed or not, a finite verb is said to be of the same number and person as its subject. Thus in the expression "I *love*," "love" is said to be in the first person, singular number, while in "they *love*," "love" is said to be in the third person and plural number.

THE PARTICIPLE

A participle is a part of the verb that may be used independently either as an adjective or a noun,* while retaining the properties of a verb, as that of governing an object, or being modified by adverbs.

LIST OF PARTICIPLES

Two participles are formed directly from the verb stem:

(1) The *present participle*, which always ends in *ing*, and represents the action of the verb as incomplete, or in progress or continuance; as, *Being* in the city, I have called upon you; *Seeing* the multitudes, he went up into a mountain.

(2) The *past participle*, denoting action that is past or reaches into the past with reference to the time of the principal verb; as, The story *told* by the messenger is improbable; Time *lost* can never be recovered; Facts *learned* by hard study are well remembered.

* NOTE. — See full explanation under USES OF THE PARTICIPLES, p. 168.

Goold Brown, in his *Grammar of English Grammars*, thus defines:

"A Participle is a word derived from a verb, participating the properties of a verb, *and of an adjective or a noun*." Pt. ii, ch. vii, p. 409.

William Taylor Harris, in his *Advanced English Grammar* (1903), p. 249, says:

"The *present participle* is often *used as a noun. When used as a noun, the participle retains its verbal power*, and may have an object or be modified by an adverb, an adverbial phrase, or an adverbial clause."

Thomas W. Harvey, in his *Practical Grammar of the English Language*, p. 78, says:

"A participle is a word derived from a verb and partaking of the properties of a verb, and of *an adjective or a noun*."

Other participles are formed by the aid of auxiliaries, giving three participles in each voice, as follows:

ACTIVE VOICE

Present	*Past*	*Perfect*
loving,	loved,	having loved.

PASSIVE VOICE

Present	*Past*	*Perfect*
being loved,	loved,	having been loved.

The same form, *loved*, is used as the past participle in either the Active or the Passive Voice. It is ordinarily called simply the *past participle*. As used in the perfect tenses of the active voice, the past participle has an active meaning; as used in the passive voice, the same form has a passive sense. In the sentence "I have *given* the book," "given" denotes an action done *by* the subject "I" (the *active* sense); in the sentence "The book was *given* by me," "given" denotes an action done *to* the subject "book" (the *passive* sense).

EXERCISE 23

Point out all the finite verbs, infinitives, and participles in the following extracts; tell which of the verbs so represented are *regular* and which *irregular* (see LIST OF IRREGULAR VERBS, p. 180); tell the mode and tense of each finite verb; explain the use of each infinitive, with or without *to;* give the name of each participle (present, past, etc.).

From morn
To noon he fell, from noon to dewy eve,
A summer's day; and with the setting sun
Dropt from the zenith like a falling star.

MILTON *Paradise Lost*, bk. i, l. 742.

How far that little candle throws his beams!
So shines a good deed in a naughty world.

SHAKESPEARE *Merchant of Venice*, act v, sc. 1.

I am in earnest — I will not equivocate — I will not excuse — I will not retreat a single inch; AND I WILL BE HEARD. — WILLIAM LLOYD GARRISON *Salutatory of the Liberator*, vol. 1, no. 1, Jan. 1, 1831.

When the fields are sweet with clover,
  And the woods are glad with song,
When the brooks are running over,
  And the days are bright and long,
Then, from every nook and bower,
Peeps the dainty strawberry flower.
DORA READ GOODALE *Strawberries.*

Let us have faith that Right makes Might, and in that faith let us to the end dare to do our duty as we understand it. — ABRAHAM LINCOLN *Address. New York City.* Feb. 21, 1859.

A Sensitive Plant in a garden grew,
And the young winds fed it with silver dew,
And it opened its fan-like leaves to the light,
And closed them beneath the kisses of night.
SHELLEY *The Sensitive Plant*, pt. i.

A sculptor wields
The chisel, and the stricken marble grows
To beauty.
BRYANT *The Flood of Years.*

When the moon shone, we did not see the candle;
So doth the greater glory dim the less.
SHAKESPEARE *Merchant of Venice*, act v, sc. 1, l. 92.

It never frightened a Puritan when you bade him stand still and listen to the speech of God. His closet and his church were full of the reverberations of the awful, gracious, beautiful voice for which he listened. — PHILLIPS BROOKS *Sermons. The Seriousness of Life.*

Among the natural rights of the colonists are these: First a right to life, secondly to liberty, thirdly to property; together with the right to defend them in the best manner they can. — SAMUEL ADAMS *Statement of the Rights of the Colonists*, etc. 1772.

Bird of the broad and sweeping wing,
  Thy home is high in heaven,
Where wide the storms their banners fling,
  And the tempest clouds are driven.
PERCIVAL *To the Eagle.*

For it stirs the blood in an old man's heart,
And makes his pulses fly,
To catch the thrill of a happy voice,
And the light of a pleasant eye.
N. P. WILLIS *Saturday Afternoon*, st. 1.

There is no terror, Cassius, in your threats,
For I am arm'd so strong in honesty
That they pass by me as the idle wind,
Which I respect not.
SHAKESPEARE *Julius Cæsar*, act iv, sc. 3, l. 66.

He is wise who can instruct us and assist us in the business of daily virtuous living. — CARLYLE *Essays. Schiller.*

He only is a well-made man who has a good determination.
EMERSON *Essay. Culture.*

Some love to roam o'er the dark sea's foam,
Where the shrill winds whistle free.
CHARLES MACKAY *Some Love to Roam.*

SECTION IV

CONJUGATION

The conjugation of a verb is an orderly arrangement of all its parts according to Voice, Mode, Tense, Person, and Number.

SYNOPSIS

The **Synopsis** of a verb is the orderly arrangement of its forms by mode and tense in a single number and person, commonly the first person singular.

The *synopsis* is often of great value for the sake of brevity, the associated forms being readily supplied from those thus given.

PRINCIPAL PARTS

The Principal Parts of a verb are the Present Indicative (or the root-form of the verb), the Past Indicative, and the Past Participle. They are so called because when these parts are known all the modes and tenses of the verb can be readily formed from them.

Thus the entire conjugation of the verb "love" or the verb "give" can be formed from the following Principal Parts:

	Present	*Past*	*Past Participle*
Regular	love,	loved,	loved.
Irregular	give,	gave,	given.

How can the many shades of thought which the English, like other languages, needs to express by verbs, be indicated by the use of these very few and simple forms? This will be shown by a careful examination of the separate forms above presented.

THE ROOT-FORM AND INFLECTED FORMS

The form of the verb used after *to* in the infinitive is called the *root-form* of the verb; as, to *do*, to *come*, to *give*, to *call*, to *love*.* Thus we speak of "the verb *do*," "the verb *come*," etc.

1. **The Present Indicative.** — In all verbs (except the verb *be*, which will be later considered) the root-form is used unchanged in the first person singular, and in the first, second, and third persons plural of the present tense of the Indicative Mode. Thus:

INDICATIVE MODE

PRESENT TENSE

	Singular Number		
First Person.	I love,	I call,	I give.
	Plural Number		
First Person.	we love,	we call,	we give.
Second Person.	you love,	you call,	you give.
Third Person.	they love,	they call,	they give.

* NOTE. — "In point of form the infinitive is the simple, unchanged root-form of the verb." — RAMSEY *English Language and English Grammar*, p. 463.

There is still wanting one form for the present tense of the indicative mode (or, as we may briefly term it, the *present indicative*), viz., the form for the *third person singular*. This is obtained by adding *s* to the root-form of the verb, making *loves*, *calls*, *gives*, etc. This is the only change made to indicate person.

Thus we have for the third person, using the pronoun "he" to indicate person, the following forms in the present indicative:

Third Person. he * loves, he calls, he gives.

We may now give the entire set of forms in the present indicative thus:

INDICATIVE MODE

PRESENT TENSE

Singular Number

First Person.	I love,	I call,	I give.
Second Person.	(same as plural)	(same as pl.)	(same as pl.)
Third Person.	he loves,	he calls,	he gives.

Plural Number

First Person.	we love,	we call,	we give.
Second Person.	you love,	you call,	you give.
Third Person.	they love,	they call,	they give.

Condensed Form

On examining the statement above given, we see that we may omit the designations of person and number, which the pronouns sufficiently indicate. Further, we may trust the pupil to remember (with occasional question or reminder) that the second person singular is, in ordinary use, the same as the second person plural. We

* NOTE. — Instead of *he*, we may use *she*, or *it*, or any noun in the third person.

may also avoid repeating identical forms in immediate connection. The statement then becomes:

INDICATIVE MODE

PRESENT TENSE

I love,	I call,	I give.
he loves,	he calls,	he gives.
we, you, they love,	we, you, they call,	we, you, they give.

But we may present all these forms for each verb in a single line, as follows:

INDICATIVE MODE

PRESENT TENSE

I **love**, he **loves**, we, you, they **love**.
I **call**, he **calls**, we, you, they **call**.
I **give**, he **gives**, we, you, they **give**.

On account of the simplicity and compactness of this condensed form of statement, it will be used wherever practicable for all modes and tenses throughout the conjugations.

The form for the third person singular (*loves*, *calls*, *gives*) contains the only change made by inflection in the present indicative.

2. **The Past Indicative.** — The past tense of the indicative mode is made from the root-form by a slight inflection, adding *ed* in regular verbs and changing some vowel or consonant, or both, in irregular verbs. The past tenses of irregular verbs must be learned one by one, each for itself. (See IRREGULAR VERBS, p. 180.)

For the three verbs above presented the past tenses of the indicative are *loved*, *called*, *gave*.

When we have learned the form for the *first person singular* of the *past indicative*, we have learned the forms for *all persons* of both numbers, for there is no change. Thus:

INDICATIVE MODE

PAST TENSE

I, he, we, you, they **loved**; **(called)**; **(gave)**.

That is all there is of the simple past tense of any verb except the verb *be*. See CONJUGATION OF THE VERB BE, p. 157. Nothing could be imagined more absolutely simple and easy.

The present and past tenses of the indicative are the only forms of the indicative that are made by inflection in any English verb.

The present and past were the only two tenses that any Anglo-Saxon verb had, the present denoting all time that was not past, and thus, of course, including the future. So we may still, at times, use the present tense to denote future action; as, "I *sail* for Europe next week."

3. **The Present Subjunctive.** — The root-form of the verb is used unchanged for all persons and both numbers of the present subjunctive, which differs from the present indicative only in not inflecting the third person singular. The subjunctive forms are commonly indicated by prefixing the conjunction *if*. Thus:

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE

PRESENT TENSE

(If) I, he, we, you, they **love**; **(call)**; **(give)**.

It will be seen that this differs from the present indicative only in the third person singular.

The indicative form of the third person singular, *loves*, *calls*, *gives*, is now very commonly used after *if*, in place of the subjunctive; as, "If he *calls*, I will see him."

4. **The Imperative Mode.** — The root-form of the verb, as *love*, *call*, *give*, is used in a command, a request or the like; as, *Love* your enemies; *Call* a carriage; *Give* him the money; Kindly *give* me the book. This is the form used generally in calling, commanding, entreating, exclaiming, etc.; as, *come! look! see* there! *march! help! pity* me! This use of the verb is commonly without noun or pronoun, though a pronoun of the second person may be supplied, as follows:

> *Love* thou thy land, with love far brought.
>
> *Tennyson.*

> *Call* ye my whole, ay, *call*,
> The lord of lute and lay.
>
> *Charade on name of the poet Campbell.*

> *Give*, and it shall be given unto you.
>
> *Luke* 6: 38.

> *Give* ye them to eat.
>
> *Matt.* 14: 16.

It is usual to say that grammatically a pronoun of the second person is "understood," in all such cases, because such pronoun may always be supplied; as, Come (thou)! Look (ye or you)!

5. **The Infinitive.** — The root-form of the verb, as *love*, *call*, *give*, used without noun or pronoun, and without reference to person or number, forms the *present infinitive*, commonly called by preëminence THE INFINITIVE.

6. **The Present Participle.** — This is formed by the slight inflection of adding *ing* to the root-form of the verb; as, *loving; calling; giving.**

* NOTE. — When the root-form of the verb ends in mute (silent) *e*, the *e* is dropped before adding *ing*, except in the cases following: (1) The final *e* is retained in *hoeing*, *shoeing*, and *toeing*; (2) The final *e* is retained

7. **The Past Participle.** — This is also formed by inflection, adding *ed* to the root-form in regular verbs, and by other changes in irregular verbs (see IRREGULAR VERBS, p. 180); as, *loved; called; given.*

The past participle of a regular verb always ends in *ed*, and is obtained by adding *ed* to the root-form. The past participles of irregular verbs have various forms, which must be learned from the LIST OF IRREGULAR VERBS, p. 180.

Thus in any English verb (except the verb *be*, p. 157) we have never more than five forms produced by inflection when the "Thou System" (p. 185) is omitted; as, *love, loves, loved, loving, loved; call, calls, called, calling, called; give, gives, gave, giving, given.*

Since in regular verbs the past tense and past participle (as *loved*, or *called*) are identical in form, regular verbs may be said to have but *four* different forms resulting from inflection.

These four or five forms give seven parts of the verb, viz.: the Present Indicative, Present Subjunctive, Past Indicative, Imperative, Present Infinitive, Present Participle, and Past Participle.

These are all the English verb-forms made by inflection.

REMARKS

Simplicity of the English Verb. — As regards change of form, no English verb (except the verb *be*) has more than five forms; as, *give, gives, giving, gave, given.* Most verbs have only four forms; as, *love, loves, loving, loved.*

The verb *be*, the most irregular in the language (see BE under AUXILIARIES), has but eight forms; namely, *be, am, is, are, was, were, being, been.*

How wonderful is the gain for simplicity in English may be seen by the fact that the Greek verb has 1138 parts, and the Latin 444.

in the derivatives of *dye, singe, springe, swinge,* and *tinge,* to distinguish *dycing* from *dying, singeing* from *singing,* etc., and to keep the *g* soft in *tingeing.* Verbs in *ie,* as *die, hie, lie, tie, vie,* commonly change *ie* to *y* before *ing;* as, *dying, hying, lying, tying, vying.* Some authorities, however, favor the use of *hieing.*

EXERCISE 24

Give the principal parts of the following verbs (consulting as needed the LIST OF IRREGULAR VERBS, p. 180); conjugate the present and past indicative and the present subjunctive mode of each verb; give the imperative of each; give the present infinitive, and the present and past participle of each.

Verbs. — (1) *Regular:* accost, address, appear, approach, believe, call, carry, defend, deliver, detain, fear, forward, frighten, grieve, hasten, lament, present, receive, relieve, strengthen, support, sustain, travel.

(2) *Irregular:* break, bring, burn, catch, come, dig, feed, fight, get, go, grow, hang, hit, hold, know, leave, make, mean, pay, quit, read, ride, see, set, shake, spring, swim, take, tear, wear, weep, write.

VERB-PHRASES

Beyond these few main forms above presented, every other verbal idea is expressed, not by any change in the verb, but by joining to it some other verb, making a verb-phrase. There are a number of simple verbs which are used in this way, to help out the meaning of other verbs, and which, because so used, are called *auxiliary verbs* or *auxiliaries* (the word *auxiliary* meaning "helping").

REMARKS

The verb-phrases formed with the auxiliaries for the most part cannot be explained, because we have no simpler words by which to explain them. They can only be understood just as a child comes to understand them by learning their meaning as used in sentences in connection with other words.*

* NOTE. — Hence any censure of some particular form, like "is being done," because we cannot put it together and explain it logically, is wholly fallacious. The only question is, whether the form is used by good authorities and is understood by those who hear or read it.

List of Auxiliary Verbs. — There are eight auxiliary verbs, viz.: *be*, *can*, *do*, *have*, *may*, *must*, *shall*, and *will*.

This list should be learned by heart in alphabetical order, as here given. In presenting auxiliaries in the following pages the alphabetical order is departed from, for the purpose of giving the auxiliaries in the order of their use, as found in the conjugations.

CONJUGATIONS OF THE AUXILIARY VERBS

The Auxiliaries with their inflections are as follows:

HAVE

We will first consider the auxiliary *have*, because it supplies the time element of what are called the "perfect" tenses, so that even the other auxiliaries, *be* and *do*, cannot be fully conjugated without *have*.

The auxiliary *have* has the following chief forms:

INDICATIVE MODE

PRINCIPAL PARTS

PRESENT	PAST
Singular	*Singular*
I have, he has,*	I, he } had.†
Plural	*Plural*
we, you, they } have,	we, you, they } had.

The unity of these forms of the present indicative of *have* may be exhibited still more strikingly by omitting

* A contraction of *haves*. † A contraction of *haved*.

the designations *singular* and *plural*, which are sufficiently indicated by the pronouns. Thus:

INDICATIVE MODE

Present Tense. I *have*, he *has*, we, you, they *have.*
Past Tense. I, he, we, you, they *had.*

We may represent in the same way

THE SUBJUNCTIVE MODE

Present Tense. (If) I, he, we, you, they *have.*
Past Tense. (Same as the Past Indicative.)

Present Infinitive (to) *have*, *Present Participle having.*

Present Perfect and Past Perfect. — By adding to the present or past tense of *have* the past participle of any verb, we obtain the *present perfect* or *past perfect tense* of that verb whose participle is so added.* Thus:

TENSES INDICATIVE MODE

Present Perfect. I *have*, he *has*, we, you, they *have* **loved.**
Past Perfect. I, he, we, you, they *had* **loved.**

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE

Present Perfect. (If) I, he, we, you, they *have* **loved.**
Past Perfect. (Same as Past Perfect Indicative.)

Perfect Infinitive and Participle. — These are obtained by adding the past participle of any principal verb to the present infinitive or present participle of *have.* Thus:

Perfect Infinitive, (to) *have* **loved.**
Perfect Participle, *having* **loved.**

* NOTE. — The forms for the active voice are here alone considered, since the passive forms involve the use of the auxiliary *be*, which will be treated later.

***Have* as a Principal Verb.** — *Have* is used, also, as a principal verb, denoting possession; as, I *have* the money. When used as an auxiliary, this idea of possession disappears, and *have* is joined with the past participle of the principal verb to show that the action or state of that verb is thought of as complete at some specified time; as, I *have* learned the lesson. *Have* may be used as an auxiliary of itself, and also of *be* and *do*. When used as an auxiliary of itself, the form of *have* to which the auxiliary is prefixed is the principal verb; as,

I *have* **had** (possessed) the book.

Similarly, when *have* is used with *do*, *do* is taken as the principal verb; as, I have *done* (performed) the deed. But *have* may be used with *be*, when both are auxiliary; as, I *have been* dreaming.

A Peculiar Idiom. — *Had* has peculiar use in such phrases as "I *had* rather," "I *had* as lief (as soon, etc.)."

I *had* rather be a doorkeeper in the house of my God than to dwell in the tents of wickedness. — *Ps.* 84: 10.

I *had* rather be a dog, and bay the moon,
Than such a Roman.
SHAKESPEARE *Julius Cæsar*, act iv, sc. 3, l. 27.

We *had* best return toward the boat.
BULWER *Rienzi*.

This is sanctioned by the best literary use, as an accepted English idiom, which we need not try to explain.

CAUTIONS.

1. The present form *have* cannot be joined to the past form *had*, so as to follow *had;* we may say "I *have had*," but not "I *had have*," which is as erroneous as "I *had love*" or "I *had give*." Hence such expressions as, "If I *had have* known it," are wholly incorrect. Omit the "have," and say simply, "If I *had* known it."

2. *Have* or *had* cannot be used as an auxiliary of *can*, *may*, *must*, *shall*, *will*, or *ought*. Never say "I *had* ought" or "*I'd* ought." (See OUGHT, p. 154.)

AUXILIARIES OF THE FUTURE

We are still unable to conjugate *have* or any other verb in full until we consider two important auxiliaries, *shall* and *will*, which are the means of denoting future time.

SHALL

Shall is a defective auxiliary, having no imperative, infinitive, nor participles, and is used only in the present and past forms of the indicative mode. Thus:

Present Tense.	I, he, we, you, they *shall.*
Past Tense.	I, he, we, you, they *should.*

Shall, though grammatically in the present tense, is used as an auxiliary to express *future* action or state of the principal verb, either as a prediction, a command, or a necessity.

Should, the past tense of *shall*, is used as an auxiliary of the *past* and *past perfect potential.* The *past potential* with *should* expresses duty, probability, or the fulfilment of a condition, either in *present* or *future* time; as, You *should* attend to your lessons; I *should* go, if invited. To express the same thought in *past* time, the *past perfect potential* is used; as, You *should have* attended to your lessons; If he had invited me, I *should have* gone.

WILL

Will is a defective auxiliary, used only in the two forms *will* and *would* of the present and past indicative. Thus:

Present Tense.	I, he, we, you, they *will.*
Past Tense.	I, he, we, you, they *would.*

Will, though grammatically in the present tense, is used to express future action or state of the principal verb, either as a purpose or as a simple prediction.

Would, the past tense of *will*, is used as an auxiliary of the *past potential* to express wish, willingness, or approval, either in a present or future sense; as, I *would* go (now or to-morrow), if possible. To express the same idea in past time, the *past perfect* potential is used; He *would have* come, if I had invited him.

DISTINCTION BETWEEN *SHALL* AND *WILL*

The difference between the auxiliaries *shall* and *will* in the expression of future action or state is one requiring careful study.

Shall primarily denotes obligation, being derived from the Anglo-Saxon *sceal*, I am obliged or compelled.

Will primarily denotes purpose or intention, being from the Anglo-Saxon verb *willan*, to will, akin to the noun *willa*, the will.*

As auxiliaries these words are shaded off in meaning, and a part of the original force is lost, just as the idea of possession denoted by *have* is lost when *have* is used as an auxiliary. Thus:

In the *first person*, the sense of what I am *obliged* to do shades off into what I am *destined* to do, *sure* to do, and *shall* in the first person simply denotes future fact.

* NOTE. — *Will* is sometimes used as a principal verb, meaning "resolve," "decree." So used *will* is conjugated in full as a regular verb; as, He can do it, if he *wills* it; You could master this if you *willed* to do it. *Will* is also used as a principal verb in the technical sense of "bequeath by will;" in this use also, will is a regular verb; as, He *willed* his property to his friend.

In the *second and third persons* the idea of obligation remains, and is felt to be imposed *by the person speaking;* hence, "you *shall*" or "they *shall*" means, "I *will compel* you or them so to act." Sometimes these phrases "you *shall*," "he *shall*," and "they *shall*," are used to mean "*you* (*he* or *they*) will be *compelled by the nature of things or by the circumstances of the case.*" Consequently "you (he or they) *shall*" expresses command or necessity, — never simple future action.

Will in the *first person* denotes purpose or intention. "I *will* go" means "I *intend* to go;" if strongly emphasized, it means "I *am resolved* to go," in spite of any hindrance or opposition.

In interrogative sentences, however, the word *will* is not used with the first person, since the speaker knows what he intends or purposes, and does not need to ask. Do not say, "*Will* I mail this letter?" "*Will* we go to dinner?" but "*Shall* I — ?" "*Shall* we — ?" *Shall* in an interrogative sentence asks for the consent or approval of the person or persons addressed; — "Do you wish me to mail this letter?" — "Does it suit you — ?" or "Are you ready to go to dinner with me?"

In the *second* and *third persons*, "you (he or they) *will* go" means, it is understood that "you," "he," or "they" are *intending* to go; "you," "he," or "they" *may be expected* to go. Hence, "*you* (*he* or *they*) *will* go" expresses simple future action which is not compelled.

Accordingly, we have two parallel sets of futures, in which *shall* and *will* change about according to the persons referred to, viz.: 1. The **Declarative Future,** expressing simple future fact; 2. The **Purposive Future,**

expressing intention, obligation, command, or necessity. Thus:

THE DECLARATIVE FUTURE		THE PURPOSIVE FUTURE	
I *shall*		I *will*	
he *will*		he *shall*	
we *shall*	**love.***	we *will*	**love.***
you *will*	**(call).**	you *shall*	**(call).**
they *will*	**(give).**	they *shall*	**(give).**

In the future perfect tense, *shall* or *will* is combined with *have* before the past participle of any verb, to denote future time antecedent to some other future time, and observing the same distinctions of *declarative* and *purposive* use.

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE

(DECLARATIVE)		(PURPOSIVE)	
I *shall*		I *will*	
he *will*		he *shall*	
we *shall*	*have* **loved.**	we *will*	*have* **loved.**
you *will*	**(called).**	you *shall*	**(called).**
they *will*	**(given).**	they *shall*	**(given).**

The *future* and *future perfect* tenses are found only in the *indicative* mode.

With these three auxiliaries, *have*, *shall*, and *will*, we may now build the entire conjugation of the *Indicative Mode* of any verb.

In this presentation, the auxiliary verbs are printed in italics, and forms of the principal verb in black-faced type.

* NOTE. — The root-form of any principal verb, so used, is the infinitive without *to*.

THE INDICATIVE MODE OF THE VERB *LOVE*

TENSES	
Present.	I **love,** he **loves,** we, you, they **love.**
Pres. Perfect.	I *have*, he *has*, we, you, they *have* **loved.**
Past.	I, he, we, you, they **loved.**
Past Perfect.	I, he, we, you, they *had* **loved.**
Future.	
(declarative)	I *shall*, he *will*, we *shall*, you *will*, they *will* **love.**
(purposive)	I *will*, he *shall*, we *will*, you *shall*, they *shall* **love.**
Fut. Perfect.	
(declarative)	I *shall*, he *will*, we *shall*, you *will*, they *will have* **loved.**
(purposive)	I *will*, he *shall*, we *will*, you *shall*, they *shall have* **loved.**

THE SUBJUNCTIVE MODE

Have is the only auxiliary used in the Subjunctive Mode. As previously stated, the Present Subjunctive uses the root-form of the verb unchanged for all persons and both numbers. This is true of the Present Subjunctive of *have*, as already shown. As an auxiliary, the *Present Subjunctive* of *have* is used to form the *Present Perfect Subjunctive* of any principal verb. Thus the Present Perfect Subjunctive of any principal verb will differ from the Present Perfect Indicative of that verb by using *have* instead of *has* in the third person singular — the only difference in that tense. Thus:

INDICATIVE MODE

TENSE	
Pres. Perfect.	I *have*, he *has*, we, you, they *have* **loved.**

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE

Pres. Perfect.	(If) I, he, we, you, they *have* **loved.**

That is, in the Present Perfect Tense, third person singular, the Indicative uses "he *has* loved," while the Subjunctive uses "(if)

he *have* loved." Otherwise the forms of the Indicative and of the Subjunctive are identical in the Present Perfect Tense.

It has already been shown that in the Present Tense the forms of the Indicative and of the Subjunctive are identical except in the third person singular.

What are called the Past and Past Perfect Tenses of the Subjunctive are simply the corresponding forms of the Indicative used without change (except that the conjunction *if* is commonly prefixed as a sign or indicator of the Subjunctive).

Exception. — This is true of all verbs except the verb *be*, which has quite distinct forms in the Subjunctive (pp. 157–158).

THE SUBJUNCTIVE MODE OF THE VERB *LOVE*

TENSES	
Present.	(If) I, he, we, you, they **love.**
Pres. Perfect.	(If) I, he, we, you, they *have* **loved.**

For the Past and Past Perfect Subjunctive, the forms of the Past and Past Perfect Indicative are used.

EXERCISE 25

(1) How many auxiliary verbs are there? Repeat the list of auxiliaries in alphabetical order.

(2) Give the conjugation of *have* as an auxiliary verb (only the forms in auxiliary use to be given).

(3) Conjugate the auxiliaries *shall* and *will*.

(4) Conjugate the indicative mode and the present and present perfect subjunctive of each verb in Exercise 24, p. 136, paying particular attention to the *declarative* and *purposive* forms of the future and the future perfect indicative.

THE POTENTIAL MODE

The auxiliaries of the Potential Mode are *may*, *can*, and *must*. In the Past and Past Perfect Tenses, *should* (the Past Tense of *shall*) and *would* (the Past Tense of *will*) are also used.

MAY

May, from the Anglo-Saxon *maeg*, *maegan*, be strong, be able, is, like *can*, a defective auxiliary, having no imperative, infinitive, or participle. The original word was also an auxiliary in the Anglo-Saxon. *May* denotes possibility, or at times request or entreaty.*

Only the forms *may* and *might* are now used, thus:

INDICATIVE MODE †

TENSES	
Present.	I, he, we, you, they *may*.
Past.	I, he, we, you, they *might*.

CAN ‡

Can is now used only as an auxiliary. When it seems to stand alone, a principal verb is always understood, usually supplied from something that has gone before; as,

> That they should take who have the power,
> And they should keep who *can;*

that is, "they should keep who *can* (keep)."

* NOTE. — In former usage, *may not* was at times used as equivalent to *must not*, meaning that permission is not to be given, or its possibility considered, as Richard Hooker writes:

> "Graces for which we *may not* cease to sue."

† NOTE. — In the verb *may*, as also in *can* and *must*, and in the past tenses of *shall* and *will* (*should* and *would*), the indicative forms of the auxiliary have potential use in the Potential Mode of any principal verb.

‡ Professor Whitney says in his *Language and the Study of Language* (lecture iii, p. 111),

" *Can* is a variety of *Ken*, 'to know,' and means etymologically 'to know how.' "

When knowledge was recognized as superior to brute force, *can* came to mean "to have ability," "to be able."

Can is a defective auxiliary, having no infinitive, participle, nor imperative, and being used only in the two forms, *can* and *could;* thus:

INDICATIVE MODE

TENSES	
Present.	I, he, we, you, they *can.*
Past.	I, he, we, you, they *could.*

MUST

Must is the most defective of all the auxiliaries, being absolutely without inflection. *Must* is from the Anglo-Saxon *moste*, which is the preterite of *motan*, may. But *must* is now used only as a present, implying absolute or imperative necessity. In the archaic style, the principal verb might be omitted; as, "I *must* away," that is, "I *must go* away." *Must* is exceptional in that it undergoes no change whatever, even in the second person singular (see the *Thou System*, p. 185). Its entire conjugation is:

INDICATIVE MODE

Present Tense. I, he, we, you, they *must.*

TENSES OF THE POTENTIAL MODE OF THE VERB *LOVE*

Present Tense

I, he, we, you, they — may, can, or must **love**

Present Perfect Tense

I, he, we, you, they — may, can, or must **have loved.**

Past Tense

I
he
we } might, could, would, or should **love.**
you
they

Past Perfect Tense

I
he
we } might, could, would, or should have **loved.**
you
they

THE AUXILIARY OF EMPHASIS, INTERROGATION, AND DENIAL, *DO* *

Do, as an auxiliary, is used only in the present and past indicative and the imperative; as, *Do* you hear the music? I *did* not notice; *Do* come in.

The conjugation of *do* as an auxiliary is as follows:

TENSES	INDICATIVE MODE
Present.	I *do*, he *does*, we, you, they *do.*
Past.	I, he, we, you, they *did.*
	SUBJUNCTIVE MODE
Present.	(If) I, he, we, you, they *do.*
	IMPERATIVE MODE
Present.	*do.*

Do is often used as a principal verb, in the sense of "accomplish," "perform;" as, He *does* † his work well; I can *do* it; That job is *done.*† So used, *do* has the full

* Pronounced as if spelled *doo*, with the sound of *oo* in *too*.

† *Does* is pronounced *duz*, and *done* is pronounced *dun*, with the short sound of *u*, as in *cup*. Never say *dooz*, which is provincial.

conjugation of an irregular verb, the principal parts being: present, *do;* past, *did;* past participle, *done.*

Error. — The use of the past participle *done*, as an auxiliary, as "He is *done* gone," is a vulgarism.

As an auxiliary, *do* is used in either of three ways:

1. ***Do* as the Auxiliary of Emphasis.** — *Do* is used for emphatic affirmation; as, I *do* believe you; I *did* hear those words; *Do* come in.

When used as an emphatic auxiliary, the past form *did* often implies some subsequent change; as, "I *did* intend to go (but have now decided otherwise, or become doubtful)."

2. ***Do* as the Auxiliary of Interrogation.** — *Do* is used at the beginning of a sentence in asking a question; as, *Do* you know the facts? *Did* you meet anyone at the door?

We never now use a principal verb, except *have* or *be* (p. 150), in direct interrogation; as, "*Came* you yesterday?"

In present and past interrogative sentences, the forms with *do* and *did* have wholly superseded the direct forms. "*Know* you the facts?" "*Met* you anyone?" would seem so antiquated as to be ridiculous, and would not even be understood without an effort. We recognize the direct interrogative as an archaic form in literature. Thus:

> "O *heard* ye yon pibroch sound sad on the gale,
> Where a band cometh slowly with weeping and wail?"

But this style has wholly gone out of common speech or current literature, where *do* and *did* are now regularly used.

3. ***Do* as the Auxiliary of Negation.** — *Do* is constantly used in denial, with *not* or other adverb interposed between the auxiliary and its verb; as, I *did* not go; I *do* not at present intend to go.*

* *Do not* is in conversation or familiar correspondence contracted to *don't, does not* to *doesn't,* and *did not* to *didn't.*

Such forms as "I went not," "I saw not," are wholly out of use in current speech or literature. Where *not* is now used alone with a verb there is commonly another verb understood; as, I *think* (it is) *not;* I *will not* (go, do, or the like).

Exceptions. — *Have* or *be*,* as a principal verb, may be used in question or denial in the present or past tenses; as, *Have* you money? I *have* not; *Is* that your money? It *is* not.

Such forms as "*Do* you *have* any money?" "I *did* not (*didn't*) *have* any" are common, but are feebler and less elegant than "*Have* you — ?" "I *have* not —," etc.

EXERCISE 26

(1) Name the auxiliaries of the potential mode, (*a*) in the present tense; (*b*) in the past tense.

(2) Conjugate the auxiliaries *may, can,* and *must.* Tell from what verbs *would* and *should* are obtained.

(3) Give all tenses in the potential mode of the verbs listed in Exercise 24, p. 136.

(4) Explain the three uses of *do* as an auxiliary. With what modes and tenses is it used?

FULL CONJUGATIONS IN THE ACTIVE VOICE

With the auxiliaries already given added to the forms made by inflection (pp. 130–135), we can build the entire conjugation of the active voice of any verb in the ordinary form, as follows:

CONJUGATION OF THE REGULAR VERB

LOVE

PRINCIPAL PARTS

Present	*Past*	*Past Participle*
love	**loved**	**loved**

* NOTE. — *Do* as an auxiliary is not used with any form of the verb *be* except the imperative; as, *Do be* quiet.

ACTIVE VOICE

TENSES	*Indicative Mode*
Present.	I **love**, he **loves**, we, you, they **love.**
Pres. Perfect.	I *have*, he *has*, we, you, they *have* **loved.**
Past.	I, he, we, you, they **loved.**
Past Perfect.	I, he, we, you, they *had* **loved.**
Future.	
(declarative)	I *shall*, he *will*, we *shall*, you, they *will* **love.**
(purposive)	I *will*, he *shall*, we *will*, you, they *shall* **love.**
Fut. Perfect.	
(declarative)	I *shall*, he *will*, we *shall*, you, they *will* ‖ *have* **loved.**
(purposive)	I *will*, he *shall*, we *will*, you, they *shall* ‖ *have* **loved.**

The vertical parallels ‖ are introduced in a few instances, as above, to separate any succeeding auxiliaries from the first auxiliary; *all words following the vertical parallels* are to be understood after *each* preceding auxiliary. Thus, in the Future Perfect Declarative, the words "*have* **loved**" are to be understood after each preceding auxiliary, the full forms being:

I *shall have* LOVED, he *will have* LOVED, we *shall have* LOVED, you *will have* LOVED, they *will have* LOVED.

The same rule holds in all similar cases.

TENSES	*Subjunctive Mode* *
Present.	(If) I, he, we, you, they **love.**
Pres. Perfect.	(If) I, he, we, you, they *have* **loved.**

Potential Mode

Present.	I, he, we, you, they *may* **love.**
Pres. Perfect.	I, he, we, you, they *may have* **loved.**
Past.	I, he, we, you, they *might* **love.**
Past Perfect.	I, he, we, you, they *might have* **loved.**

NOTE. — Instead of *may*, we may use *can* or *must;* instead of *might*, we may use *could*, *would*, or *should*.

Imperative Mode

Present.	**love** (thou *or* you); *do* (thou *or* you) **love.**

* NOTE. — The Past and Past Perfect Tenses of the Indicative are used without change in conditional sentences with *if*, etc. The Subjunctive has no special forms for these tenses.

TENSES	*Infinitive Mode*
Present.	(to) **love.**
Perfect.	(to) *have* **loved.**

PARTICIPLES

Present	*Past*	*Perfect*
loving	**loved**	*having* **loved**

CONJUGATION OF THE IRREGULAR VERB *GIVE*

PRINCIPAL PARTS

Present	*Past*	*Past Participle*
give	**gave**	**given**

ACTIVE VOICE

TENSES	*Indicative Mode*
Present	I **give,** he **gives,** we, you, they **give.**
Pres. Perfect.	I *have*, he *has*, we, you, they *have* **given.***
Past.	I, he, we, you, they **gave.**
Past Perfect.	I, he, we, you, they *had* **given.**
Future.	
(declarative)	I *shall*, he *will*, we *shall*, you, they *will* **give.**
(purposive)	I *will*, he *shall*, we *will*, you, they *shall* **give.**
Fut. Perfect.	
(declarative)	I *shall*, he *will*, we *shall*, you, they *will* || *have* **given.**
(purposive)	I *will*, he *shall*, we *will*, you, they *shall* || *have* **given.**
	Subjunctive Mode
Present.	(If) I, he, we, you, they **give.**
Pres. Perfect.	(If) I, he, we, you, they *have* **given.**

(For the Past and Past Perfect, the Indicative forms are used throughout.)

* CAUTION. — In conjugating an irregular verb, never use the *past tense* instead of the *past participle* after any form of *have*. Never say "I have *went*," but "I have *gone;*" never "I had *went*," but "I had *gone;*" not "I have *saw*," "I have *came*," but "I have *seen*," "I have *come*," etc.

TENSES	*Potential Mode*
Present.	I, he, we, you, they *may* give.
Pres. Perfect.	I, he, we, you, they *may have* given.
Past.	I, he, we, you, they *might* give.
Past Perfect.	I, he, we, you, they *might have* given.

NOTE. — Instead of *may*, we may use *can* or *must;* instead of *might*, we may use *could*, *would*, or *should*.

Imperative Mode

Present.	give (thou *or* you); *do* (thou *or* you) give.

Infinitive Mode

Present.	(to) give.
Perfect.	(to) *have* given.

PARTICIPLES

Present	*Past*	*Perfect*
giving	given	*having* given

CONJUGATION OF THE IRREGULAR VERB *HAVE*

PRINCIPAL PARTS

Present	*Past*	*Past Participle*
have	had	had

TENSES	*Indicative Mode*
Present.	I have, he has, we, you, they have.
Pres. Perfect.	I *have*, he *has*, we, you, they *have* had.
Past.	I, he, we, you, they had.
Past Perfect.	I, he, we, you, they *had* had.
Future.	
(declarative)	I *shall*, he *will*, we *shall*, you, they *will* have.
(purposive)	I *will*, he *shall*, we *will*, you, they *shall* have.
Fut. Perfect.	
(declarative)	I *shall*, he *will*, we *shall*, you, they *will* || *have* had.
(purposive)	I *will*, he *shall*, we *will*, you, they *shall* || *have* had.

Subjunctive Mode

Present.	(If) I, he, we, you, they have.
Pres. Perfect.	(If) I, he, we, you, they *have* had.

TENSES	*Potential Mode*
Present.	I, he, we, you, they *may* **have.**
Pres. Perfect.	I, he, we, you, they *may have* **had.**
Past.	I, he, we, you, they *might* **have.**
Past Perfect.	I, he, we, you, they *might have* **had.**

Imperative Mode

have (thou *or* you).

Infinitive Mode

Present.	(to) **have.**
Perfect.	(to) *have* **had.**

PARTICIPLES

Present	*Past*	*Perfect*
having	**had**	*having* **had**

THE SEMI-AUXILIARIES *OUGHT* AND *LET*

These verbs resemble auxiliaries in that neither of them expresses in itself a complete idea; they differ from auxiliaries in that neither is necessary to the conjugation of any mode or tense of any other verb.

Ought further differs from the auxiliary verbs by taking after it the infinitive with *to;* as, I *ought to* go. *Ought* is used only as present indicative, expressing moral obligation, logical necessity, or (sometimes) reasonable expectations, thus:

I, he, we, you, they **ought.**

CAUTION. — *Ought* can never take *have, be,* or any other auxiliary; expressions like "You *don't* ought," "I *had* ought," "he *hadn't* ought," are always erroneous. To express past obligation, use simply *ought* followed by the *perfect infinitive* of the accompanying verb; as, I ought *to have gone.*

Let has the full conjugation of an irregular verb. Its use as an apparent auxiliary is common in the imperative mode when it is followed by an infinitive without *to*, that

infinitive having as its subject (in the objective case) a pronoun of the first or third person, *me*, *us*, *him*, *her*, *it*, *them*, or any noun in the third person; as, *Let* me go; *Let* him come in; *Let* them state their case; *Let* the child sleep.

A Peculiar Idiom. — The phrase "let alone" is often used in a sense different from that which would be given by the words in their ordinary meaning. If we say, "Let the child alone," that does not mean that the child is to be solitary. There may be many others present. The expression means, "Keep your hands off the child," or "Do not interfere with the child." "Leave alone" is similarly used. These expressions have been explained by supplying the word "be," "Let the child *be* alone;" and we have in fact the expression, "Let it *be*," used in similar sense, meaning let the person or thing *be* undisturbed. "*Leave* it be" is sometimes heard, but is not in approved use.

EXERCISE 27

No experienced teacher need be told how to drill on the conjugations. To students studying alone, such exercises as the following will be helpful. Such a student will do well to write down from memory each form as called for, afterwards comparing his answers with the tables of conjugations, to test the accuracy of each answer.

An excellent method is to have another student or any friend hold the tables of conjugations, and ask at random for any form there given, skipping from point to point to secure the readiness that every one needs in conversation or in writing. The answers may be given orally or written down. A combination of the two methods is recommended to secure accuracy both in writing and in speaking.

(1) Give according to the tables of conjugations the forms of the active voice of (a) *love*, (b) *give*, and (c) *have*, as called for in the following schedule.*

* NOTE. — In mentioning these forms orally, we do not usually say "Indicative Mode, Past Tense, Third Person, Singular Number," but we use an abbreviated form, putting the tense first, and say, "Past Indicative, Third Person Singular," or "Third Singular," etc.

	MODE	TENSE	PERSON	NUMBER
1.	Indicative	Past	Third	Singular
2.	Subjunctive	Present Perfect	Third	Singular
3.	Imperative *			
4.	Potential	Past Perfect	Second	Plural
5.	Infinitive †	Present		
6.	Indicative	Future (declarative)	Third	Plural
7.	Indicative	Future (purposive)	First	Plural
8.	Subjunctive	Present	Third	Singular
9.	Potential	Past Perfect	First	Singular
10.	Potential	Present	Second	Singular ‡
11.	Indicative	Past Perfect	Third	Plural
12.	Indicative	Future Perfect (decl.)	Third	Singular

The other modes, tenses, persons, and numbers should be similarly taken out of course, to acquire facility of ready statement.

(2) Give in the same way the various forms of the verbs listed in Exercise 24, p. 136.

(3) Write on a separate slip the name of every tense, person, and number of every mode, without giving any verb. Thus:

(Slip 1.)

PRINCIPAL PARTS		
Present	*Past*	*Past Participle*

(Slip 2.)

Indicative, Present, First Person, Singular

So continue through all the modes, tenses, and participles. Then mix the slips, and give the form of some verb answering to the

* NOTE. — The Imperative can only be in the present tense, second person singular. Hence these items need not be mentioned.

† NOTE. — The Infinitive has no person or number.

‡ NOTE. — Remember that in ordinary use, the second person plural is always used for the second person singular.

mode, tense, etc. shown on each slip, just as it comes to hand, until you have given every form of that verb. Then repeat the process for some other verb. These slips can be preserved, and used from time to time for any verb.

CONJUGATION OF THE AUXILIARY VERB *BE*

PRINCIPAL PARTS

Present	*Past*	*Past Participle*
be	**was**	**been**

TENSES	*Indicative Mode*
Present.	I **am**, he **is**, we, you, they **are.**
Pres. Perfect.	I *have*, he *has*, we, you, they *have* **been.**
Past.	I, he **was**, we, you, they **were.**
Past Perfect.	I, he, we, you, they *had* **been.**
Future.	
(declarative)	I *shall*, he *will*, we *shall*, you, they *will* **be.**
(purposive)	I *will*, he *shall*, we *will*, you, they *shall* **be.**
Fut. Perfect.	
(declarative)	I *shall*, he *will*, we *shall*, you, they *will* || *have* **been.**
(purposive)	I *will*, he *shall*, we *will*, you, they *shall* || *have* **been.**

Subjunctive Mode

Present.	(If) I, he, we, you, they **be.**
Pres. Perfect.	(If) I, he, we, you, they *have* **been.**
Past.	(If) I, he, we, you, they **were.**
Past Perfect.	(Same as Past Perfect Indicative.)

Potential Mode

Present.	I, he, we, you, they *may* **be.**
Pres. Perfect.	I, he, we, you, they *may have* **been.**
Past.	I, he, we, you, they *might* **be.**
Past Perfect.	I, he, we, you, they *might have* **been.**

NOTE. — Instead of *may*, we may use *can* or *must;* instead of *might*, we may use *could*, *would*, or *should*.

Imperative Mode

Present.	**be** (thou *or* you) or *do* (thou *or* you) **be.**

TENSES	*Infinitive Mode*
Present.	(to) **be.**
Perfect.	(to) *have* **been.**

PARTICIPLES

Present	*Past*	*Perfect*
being	**been**	*having* **been**

REMARKS

1. **Irregularity of the Verb *Be*.** — This verb, which is generally considered very difficult, and which experiences more changes than any other verb in the English language, has yet but *eight* inflected forms in all, which may be easily learned, viz.: *be, am, is, are, was, were, being, been.*

The combinations of these forms with pronouns and auxiliaries in the various modes and tenses, as given in the conjugation, should be learned by heart till they can be repeated freely and readily like the letters of the alphabet. It will then be a very simple matter to assign each form to its proper use in any sentence.

2. **The Subjunctive of *Be*.** — The verb *be* is the only English verb that has a distinct *past tense* in the subjunctive,* the form *were* (which is *plural* in the past indicative) being used as the *singular* of the past subjunctive. In the plural, however, the forms of the past subjunctive of *be* are the same as those of the past indic-

* NOTE. — A past tense of the subjunctive of all other verbs is given by many grammarians because there is a distinct form for the past subjunctive of the verb *be*. Hence it is held that there must be a past subjunctive of every other verb in the language to fill the niche thus created. Then the *past indicative* without change of a syllable or a letter is given as the *past subjunctive*. The simple fact evidently is that in the case of every other verb except *be*, the past tense in a conditional clause is expressed by the *past indicative*, and that in every verb, including *be*, the past perfect tense in a conditional clause is expressed by the past perfect indicative.

ative. For the past perfect subjunctive, the verb *be*, like all other verbs, uses the past perfect indicative.

The present subjunctive of *be*, as of other verbs, is obsolete, as far as concerns present-day English. We rarely now say, "if I *be* there," "if it *be* true," but "if I *am* there," "if it *is* true," etc.

The past subjunctive, *were*, is, however, freely used; as, If he *were* here (as he is not), I would tell him so; If it *were* true, I should know it. The past indicative and past subjunctive of *be* are not interchanged, but contrasted; the past indicative represents the thing supposed as a fact, the past subjunctive represents it as not a fact or not known or admitted to be a fact. Thus:

(*Past Indicative.*) Though he *was* my son, I condemned him;
(*Past Subjunctive.*) Though he *were* my son, I would condemn him.

In the phrase "if I *were* you," the past subjunctive is the only form allowed; "if I *was* you" is inelegant and objectionable.

3. ***Be* as a Principal Verb.** — *Be* may be used as a principal verb in either of two ways:

(*a*) As equivalent to *exist;* as, I believe that God *is;* Whatever *is*, is right. This use is somewhat rare.

(*b*) As a connecting verb (often called the *copula* or "link"), connecting the subject with something affirmed of the subject; as, I *am* the man; Truth *is* mighty. Here the verb is used to affirm or declare the unity of the subject with some attribute, almost as the sign of equality might do (see p. 291). Thus:

Man *is* an animal.
Man = an animal.

4. **Uses of *Be* as an Auxiliary.** — When used as an auxiliary, the verb *be* loses its distinctive force. So used the verb *be* is joined only with either the present or the past participle; as, I *am* going; It *is* given.

As used with the present participle, *be* denotes continued or progressive action; as, The tree *is* falling. This use gives what is called the *Progressive Conjugation.* Used with the past participle, *be* denotes that the subject of the statement is the object of the action, and thus has a *passive force;* as, The deer *was* shot. Thus *be* is the regular formative of the *Passive Voice.* This is the chief use of *be* as an auxiliary.

EXERCISE 28

Give the various parts of the verb *be* according to the schedule presented in Exercise 27, extending the list so as to include all forms of the verb *be.*

Do not leave this verb till you can give any form in any mode or tense instantly on demand, either orally or in writing.

THE PASSIVE VOICE

To form the Passive Voice of any transitive verb:

(1) Find the *past participle* of the verb to be conjugated. If the verb is regular, the past participle will be obtained by adding *ed* to the root-form; as, love, *loved;* call, *called.* If the verb is irregular, the past participle will be found in the LIST OF IRREGULAR VERBS (p. 180); as, bring, *brought;* hear, *heard;* throw, *thrown.*

(2) Turn to the Conjugation of the Verb *be,* and add the participle of the principal verb to the forms given for

every mode and tense of the verb *be;* as (Present Indicative Passive of *call*),

I *am*, he *is*, we, you, they *are* **called.**

For the participles, add the past participle of the principal verb to the present participle and to the perfect participle of *be;* but, *substitute* the past participle of the principal verb for the past participle of *be;* as (Passive Participles of *call*),

Present	*Past*	*Perfect*
being **called**	**called**	*having been* **called**

CONJUGATION OF THE REGULAR VERB *LOVE*

PASSIVE VOICE

TENSES	*Indicative Mode*
Present.	I *am*, he *is*, we, you, they *are* **loved.**
Pres. Perfect.	I *have*, he *has*, we, you, they *have* ‖ *been* **loved.**
Past.	I, he *was*, we, you, they *were* **loved.**
Past Perfect.	I, he, we, you, they *had* ‖ *been* **loved.**
Future.	
(declarative)	I *shall*, he *will*, we *shall*, you, they *will* ‖ *be* **loved.**
(purposive)	I *will*, he *shall*, we *will*, you, they *shall* ‖ *be* **loved.**
Fut. Perfect.	
(declarative)	I *shall*, he *will*, we *shall*, you, they *will* ‖ *have been* **loved.**
(purposive)	I *will*, he *shall*, we *will*, you, they *shall* ‖ *have been* **loved.**

Subjunctive Mode

Present.	(If) I, he, we, you, they *be* **loved.**
Pres. Perfect.	(If) I, he, we, you, they *have been* **loved.**
Past.	(If) I, he, we, you, they *were* **loved.**
Past Perfect.	(If) I, he, we, you, they *had been* **loved.**

TENSES	*Potential Mode*
Present.	I, he, we, you, they *may be* **loved.**
Pres. Perfect.	I, he, we, you, they *may have been* **loved.**
Past.	I, he, we, you, they *might be* **loved.**
Past Perfect.	I, he, we, you, they *might have been* **loved.**

NOTE. — Instead of *may*, we may use *can* or *must;* instead of *might*, we may use *could*, *would*, or *should*.

Imperative Mode

Present. *be* (thou *or* you) **loved**, or *do* (thou *or* you) *be* **loved.**

Infinitive Mode

Present. (to) *be* **loved.**
Perfect. (to) *have been* **loved.**

PARTICIPLES

Present	*Past*	*Perfect*
being **loved**	**loved**	*having been* **loved.**

EXERCISE 29

Turn to the Conjugation of the Verb *be* (p. 157), and from that form the Passive Voice of each of the following verbs by adding its past participle to the various forms of the verb *be*, except that in giving the past participle you *substitute* the past participle of the principal verb for the past participle *been*.

Verbs to be Conjugated in the Passive Voice: * *call*, *give*, *see*, *hear*, *think*, *believe*, *receive*, *discover*, *expect*, *say*, *tell*, *place*, *set*, *station*. (For IRREGULAR VERBS see pp. 180–184.)

Change from Active to Passive. — A transitive verb in the *active voice* may be changed to the *passive voice* by

* This exercise may be given orally or in writing, preferably both, changing from one to the other, to secure command of both the written and the spoken style.

making the object of the active verb the subject of the passive form, and making the subject of the active verb the object of the preposition *by;* as, (active) The *engine* draws the *train;* (passive) The train is drawn *by* the *engine.*

EXERCISE 30

(1) Change the following sentences from the active to the passive form. Consult as needed the LIST OF IRREGULAR VERBS (p. 180).

A stranger met him at the door. A friend helped him home. A messenger brought the letter. The teacher explained the lesson. All the children told the same story. The express train will bring the package. The telegraph will give the news. This letter gives the needed information.

(2) Change the following sentences from the passive to the active form.

The work was well done by him. A successful flight was made by the airship. The goods were delivered by the express agent. The bill was promptly signed by the president. The game was saved by a home-run. The town was destroyed by a cyclone.

The student will do well to change from one voice to the other numerous sentences, as he may hear them spoken, or find them in his reading.

THE PROGRESSIVE CONJUGATION

The **Progressive Conjugation** is a special use of the verb in the active voice, to denote the continuance of an action or state; as, I *am doing* my best; The bell *was ringing;* Airships *will be flying* everywhere within the next few years.

The Progressive Conjugation is formed by adding the

present participle of the principal verb to any form of the verb *be*. Thus:

TENSES	*Indicative Mode*
Present.	I *am*, he *is*, we, you, they *are* **working.**
Pres. Perfect.	I *have*, he *has*, we, you, they *have* ‖ *been* **working.**
Past.	I, he *was*, we, you, they *were* **working.**
Past Perfect.	I, he, we, you, they *had been* **working.**

So through all modes, tenses, and participles of the verb *be*, simply add the present participle *working* to the form of the verb *be* for that mode, tense, or participle, and you have the appropriate form of the Progressive Conjugation of the verb *work*.

REMARKS

1. Not every form involving the verb *be* is passive:

(*a*) If a form of the verb *be* is followed by the *past participle* of the principal verb, the whole form is *passive;* as, It is *given;* He was *seen*.

(*b*) If the form of the verb *be* is followed by the *present participle* of the principal verb, the whole form is *active*, in the Progressive Conjugation; as, He was *giving* the money; They were *listening* to the address; The engines were *rushing* to the fire.

2. The Progressive form does not mean the same as the ordinary form in the same mode and tense. "The sun *is rising*" is not the same as "The sun *rises;*" "The man *was falling*" is different from "The man *fell;*" we might say, "The man *was falling*, but I caught his hand, and saved him;" — that is, he "*was falling*," but *did* NOT *fall*.

3. The verb *go* has peculiar use in the Progressive form, the present having the effect of a future tense; as, I *am going* to begin at once. In the tenses denoting past time (the *present perfect*, *past*, and *past perfect*), the form with *going* indicates time future with reference to the time of some past action; as, I *was going* to send for you, when you came in.

How completely the ordinary meaning of *go* is lost in such expressions appears from the fact that one may say, "I *am going* to stay here," or, "I *am going* to stand still."

EXERCISE 31

Turn to the Conjugation of the Verb *be* (p. 157), and from that form the *Progressive Conjugation* of each of the following verbs by adding its present participle to each of the various forms of the verb *be*.

Verbs: *call, give, see, hear, think, hope, believe, receive, expect, say, tell, do, go, work, wish, act, plan, live, earn, succeed.*

NEGATIVE AND INTERROGATIVE FORMS

A principal verb is now rarely used alone in the *Negative Form* with *not* or in the *Interrogative Form*. Where the affirmative form has no auxiliary (as in the present or past indicative), the auxiliary *do* is used in the negative or interrogative form. (See p. 149, 2, 3; and p. 150, EXCEPTIONS.)

The negative adverb *never* is, however, freely used with a principal verb. (Compare NEGATIVE SENTENCES, pp. 226–227.)

Interrogative Form

The subject (noun or pronoun) always *follows the first auxiliary* in interrogation, as will be seen in the following forms of the verb *call:*

TENSES	*Indicative Mode*
Present.	*do* I, *does* he, *do* we, you, they **call?**
Pres. Perfect.	*have* I, *has* he, *have* we, you, they **called?**
Past.	*did* I, he, we, you, they **call?**
Past Perfect.	*had* I, he, we, you, they **called?**
Future.	
(declarative)	*shall* I, *will* he, *shall* we, *will* you, they **call?**
(purposive)	———,* *shall* he, ———, *shall* you, they **call?**
Fut. Perfect.	
(declarative)	*shall* I, *will* he, *shall* we, *will* you, they *have* **called?**
(purposive)	———,* *shall* he, ———, *shall* you, they *have* **called?**

* NOTE. — The forms of the first person with *will* are never used interrogatively. We know our own purpose, and do not ask other people what it is.

Subjunctive Mode

It will be seen that the forms with *shall* in the interrogative use are often shaded off from their full meaning in affirmative use. Thus, "*Shall* he call?" means, "Do you permit him to call?" or "Do you favor or approve of his calling?" "*Shall* we go to dinner?" means, "Is it agreeable to you that we go, etc.?" These shades of meaning can only be thoroughly learned from the reading of good literature and from the speech of educated people.

(The Subjunctive Mode is not used interrogatively.)

TENSES	*Potential Mode*
Present.	*may* I, he, we, you, they **call?**
Pres. Perfect.	*may* I, he, we, you, they *have* **called?**
Past.	*might* I, he, we, you, they **call?**
Past Perfect.	*might* I, he, we, you, they *have* **called?**

NOTE. — Instead of *may*, we may use *can* or *must;* instead of *might*, we may use *could*, *would*, or *should*.

May in affirmative use expresses possibility or likelihood; as, I *may* call. In negative use, this possibility or likelihood is not altogether denied, but is stated from the negative side; the negative possibility is emphasized; as, I *may* NOT call. In interrogative use, *may* asks for permission; as, *May* I call?

Might, in interrogative use, asks permission doubtfully or deferentially; as, *Might* I suggest a change of phrase? The permission is put at a distance by being set backward in time.

Would, in interrogation, is similarly used. *Would* makes a request less pressing and more deferential, and is hence often more courteous in merely asking a favor. Thus, compare the three following sentences:

1. (Direct order) *Send* me Roget's Thesaurus.

2. (Decided request) *Will* you *send* me Roget's Thesaurus?

3. (Deferential request) *Would* you kindly *send* me Roget's Thesaurus?

Negative Form

In negation, the negative adverb *not* follows the first auxiliary. Thus:

TENSES	*Indicative Mode*
Present.	I *do*, he *does*, we, you, they *do* NOT **call.**
Pres. Perfect.	I *have*, he *has*, we, you, they *have* NOT **called.**

The same method is followed through all modes and tenses. As used with the participles, the negative precedes the participle; as, *not* coming; not *given; not* having heard.

Negative-Interrogative Forms

When the negative and interrogative forms are combined, the subject usually follows the first auxiliary, and the negative follows the subject; as, Are *you* NOT reading?

Sometimes the negative adverb precedes the subject, with the effect of emphasizing the subject; as, Did *not* YOU give that order?

RULE 2. — In the negative-interrogative forms, the subject and the negative adverb *not* follow the first auxiliary, the subject ordinarily preceding the negative adverb, though for emphasis the negative adverb may precede the subject.

EXERCISE 32

Conjugate (1) in the Interrogative Form, (2) in the Negative Form, (3) in the Negative-Interrogative Form, the verbs listed in Exercise 29, p. 162; also, the verbs listed in Exercise 24, p. 136.

Contracted Forms

In conversation various contractions of the negative forms are frequently used; as, I *haven't*, I *don't*, he

didn't, isn't it? etc.; *won't* is used as a contraction for *will not* in all persons and both numbers.

These forms are not used in literary style or in formal letters or documents.

Cautions

1. *Don't*, for *do not*, cannot be used in the third person singular, since we could not say (unless in the subjunctive mode) "he *do not*," but must say "he *does not*" (contracted to "he *doesn't*"); say, "he *doesn't*" or "*doesn't* he?"

2. *Ain't* (for *are not*) is never proper; "I *ain't*" ("I *are not*") and "he *ain't*" ("he *are not*") are especially bad.

3. It is often much better to contract the auxiliary than the negative; as, *I'm* not; *he's* not; *I've* not, etc.

"*I'll* not," for "I *will not*," is more elegant than "I *won't*," though less emphatic. "*Aren't*" is a harsh form to be avoided when possible; it is much better to say "*we're* not," "*they're* not," than "we *aren't*," or "they *aren't*."

SECTION V

USES OF THE PARTICIPLES

That the participle is a form of the verb appears from the fact that the past participle is given in all grammars as one of the "principal parts" of the verb, as, see, saw, *seen;* love, loved, *loved.* No verb can be conjugated without a participle.

Every participle, also, however various its uses, retains always the idea of *action*, which is the essential idea of the verb.

The Present Participle

THE FORM IN *ING*

The form in *ing* always denotes present action, and in the conjugation of a verb is always called the Present Participle. This form also denotes continuous, as well

as present, action. *Seeing*, *running*, *thinking*, etc., denote not only action as present, but action that continues through some lapse of time, however brief.

Let us now consider four sentences, in each of which the form in *ing* is used, and see how they agree and how they differ:

1. The *breaking* waves dashed upon the rocks.
2. The rocks, *breaking* the waves fling the surf across the land.
3. By *breaking* the waves, the rocks protect the land.
4. The *breaking* of the waves shows the position of the rocks.

Example 1. — In the first of these sentences, "The *breaking* waves dashed on the rocks," "*breaking*" is clearly used as an adjective, modifying "waves," just as such an adjective as "wild" or "stormy" might do. But this adjective carries a special idea of action. "*Breaking* waves" are waves that *break* — that do something.

It is not true, as sometimes said, that in such expressions as "*singing* birds" the idea of action is lost. "*Singing* birds" differs from "*musical* birds" or "*melodious* birds," because it calls our attention to the *act* by which the music or melody is produced. Hence the vivid power of this form in *ing*, when used in description. The idea of the *action of the verb* is kept in the word *used as an adjective*. Moreover, this form in *ing* denotes action present at the time referred to, thus holding the idea of time.

It will be seen also that this "breaking" denotes continuous or repeated action. We see in fancy wave after wave roll in and *break* on the shore. Hence they are spoken of as "the *breaking* waves," — waves that *break* continuously. "*Singing* birds" are birds that sing now, or whose habit is to sing. "*Running* water" is water that *runs* in a continuous stream. This suggestion of continuance or repetition is rarely if ever absent from

the form in *ing*. This sense is noticeable in every one of the four sentences given.

Example 4. — From Example No. 1, where "breaking" is used simply as an *adjective*, let us turn to Example 4, where "breaking" is used simply as a *noun*, taking the article "the," and being the subject of the verb "shows." Here, too, the idea of continued or habitual action appears. It is the line where the waves *constantly break* in foam that shows where the rocks are.

With regard to the two forms now considered, the form in *ing* used as an *adjective* (Example 1), and the same form used as a *noun* (Example 4), there is no difficulty.

Let us next consider Examples 2 and 3.

Three words are precisely the same in either of these two examples, viz.: "*breaking* the waves."

Are these words identical in meaning in the two examples?

In Example 2, "breaking" is used as an adjective, modifying "rocks." The phrase might be rendered, "The rocks *that break* the waves."

But now observe, that this word "breaking," while itself used as an adjective, *takes an object as if it were a verb*. The word is half adjective and half verb; it *participates* in the qualities of an *adjective* and of a *verb*. Hence grammarians have called such a word a *participle*.

Now let us put beside this the third sentence:

> By *breaking* the waves the rocks protect the land.

Here the word *breaking* is the same in form as in the second sentence. Here, as there, it expresses the present

and continuous action of the verb "break." Here, as there, it takes an object, "the waves." But, unlike the same phrase in Example 2, "*breaking*" in Example 3 has the construction of a *noun*, and is the object of the preposition *by*. It is treated as a *noun*, while at the same time *it takes an object as if it were a verb*. In this case "breaking" *participates* in the properties of a *noun* and a *verb*, exactly as in Example 2 the same word, "breaking," *participates* in the properties of an *adjective* and a *verb*. It would seem that if the one word is a participle, the other also should be. The analogy is perfect. Hence both may be included under a single definition, viz.:

A *participle* is a form of the verb combining the properties of a verb and an adjective or of a verb and a noun. (Compare p. 126.)

It is not necessary that the form in *ing*, when used as a noun, should be the object of a preposition. It may be used as the nominative or objective of a verb. Thus:

> *Breaking* the waves is the purpose of a breakwater;
> I regret *breaking* that window.

The form in *ing* is accordingly to be considered always as the present participle, having two main uses, each of which has two subdivisions: —

1. As an adjective:

(*a*) Used as an adjective modifying a noun, and at the same time taking an object, like the verb to which it belongs;

(*b*) Used as an adjective simply modifying a noun, and not taking an object.

2. As a noun:

(*a*) Used as a noun in the nominative or objective case, yet taking an object as its verb might do;

(*b*) Used as a noun in the nominative or objective case, not taking an object.

Thus we have, not four parts of speech all ending in *ing*, and all exactly alike in form, but we have one part of speech, — the *present participle* of the verb used in four different ways.

Nothing is more common in grammar than for one part of speech to be used like another, so that these four uses of one form fall naturally under the general law. The form in *ing*, wherever found, is to be called the *present participle*, and its use as a participle is then to be explained in one of the ways above given.

Remarks

The uses under 3 and 4 are not opposed, but are distinct. We cannot say that one is wrong because the other is right. Both are equally correct, but they must not be confused.

Briefly stated, the rule is: The participle used as a noun, *when preceded* by "the," cannot take an adverb or a direct object; *when not preceded by* "the," it may take either an adverb or a direct object, or both, just as the corresponding finite verb might do.

We may say either:

"The *selling of* the property was necessary;" or
"*Selling* the property was necessary;" but not,
"The *selling* the property was necessary;" nor
"*Selling of* the property was necessary."

"The" before the participle requires "of" before the object of that participle; if we omit "the," we should also omit "of." After certain words, however, as *no*, *more*, *such*, *this*, *that*, the article may be omitted, and the participle still be followed by *of;* as, *No selling of* the property was possible.

Parsing of the Present Participle

The Present Participle in its various uses may be parsed as follows:

I. (*a*) I heard the birds *singing* their sweet songs.

singing is the present participle of the verb *sing*, used as an adjective, modifying the noun "birds," and at the same time governing the object "songs," as its verb *sing* might do. (Definition of Participle.)

(*b*) The trees were full of *singing* birds.

singing is the present participle of the verb *sing*, used as an adjective, not taking an object, and modifying the noun "birds."

II. (*a*) By *singing* heroic lays, the bards roused the clans.

singing is the present participle of the verb *sing*, used as a noun, the object of the preposition *by*, and at the same time governing the object "lays," as its verb *sing* might do. (Definition of Participle.)

(*b*) The *singing* of the bards roused the clans.

singing is the present participle of the verb *sing*, used as a noun, not taking an object, and is the subject of the verb "roused."

EXERCISE 33

Find and parse the present participles in the following extracts, explaining in what way each is used.

Maiden with the meek brown eyes,
In whose orbs a shadow lies,
Like the dusk in evening skies,
Standing with reluctant feet,
Where the brook and river meet,
Womanhood and childhood fleet!

LONGFELLOW *Maidenhood.*

Hark! the hours are softly calling,
  Bidding Spring arise,
To listen to the rain-drops falling
  From the cloudy skies.

ADELAIDE A. PROCTER *Spring.*

Dip down upon the northern shore,
  O sweet new year, delaying long;
  Thou doest expectant nature wrong,
Delaying long; delay no more.

TENNYSON *In Memoriam.*

Robert of Lincoln is gayly drest,
  Wearing a bright black wedding-coat;
White are his shoulders and white his crest.

BRYANT *Robert of Lincoln.*

Robert of Lincoln's Quaker wife,
  Pretty and quiet, with plain brown wings,
Passing at home a patient life,
  Broods in the grass while her husband sings.

BRYANT *Robert of Lincoln.*

We may live without friends; we may live without books;
But civilized man cannot live without cooks.
He may live without books, — what is knowledge but grieving?
He may live without hope, — what is hope but deceiving?
He may live without love, — what is passion but pining?
But where is the man that can live without dining?

OWEN MEREDITH (Lord Lytton) *Lucile*, pt. i, can. ii, st. 24.

SUBSTITUTE TERMS

1. The **Participial Adjective.** — The form in Example 1 — "the breaking waves" — is often called the *participial adjective.* This is very good as a general descriptive term, especially as it keeps before the mind the participial origin of the form.

The term is not here employed, because it is the preferred usage of this book to keep for each word the name of the part of speech to which it naturally belongs, and when such word has the use of some other part of speech simply to state that it is so used, as in the noun-use of the *adjective* or of the *possessive pronoun*, to

call the form still an *adjective* or a *possessive pronoun* "used as a noun." Hence the preferred name for the *participle* in the use now considered is, "the *present participle* used as an adjective."

2. The **Gerund.** — Many grammarians prefer to call this form of Example 3 the **gerund,** because it resembles in some respects a Latin form so called. But the analogy is far from perfect. The Latin **gerund** had no nominative case. The sentence, "*Climbing* mountains is hard work," could not possibly be translated by a gerund in Latin.*

3. The **Infinitive in *ing*.** — Some grammarians prefer to call the usage in Example 3 "the infinitive in *ing*." This is based on the fact that the form in *ing* is sometimes interchangeable with the infinitive with *to*.

* NOTE. — It is urged that the Anglo-Saxon had what modern grammarians of that language call a *gerund*. But the Anglo-Saxon *gerund* was, "A verbal noun ending in *e* used after the preposition *to*, in order to denote purpose or end; the dative infinitive." It will be seen that this gerund did not end in *ing*. The Anglo-Saxon had a verbal noun in *ung*, or *ing*, used in such phrases as, *Ic waes on huntunge*, "I was a-hunting." In process of time both the gerund in *e* and participle in *ende* became changed to *ing*.

"The participle had begun to adopt the *ing* as early as Layamon, about 1204; and so it comes to pass that in our time we have three classes of words, originally distinct, melted into one. *It is not always possible now to say to which group a given word is most nearly related.* The difficulty is not lessened by the circumstance that *experts are not agreed.*" — RAMSEY *The English Language and English Grammar*, ch. vii, p. 470.

"By reason of the alteration and the mixture of the idiomatic uses of the verbal noun in *ing*, and the verbal adjective (present participle), great confusion has resulted, and in many constructions the form in *ing may be referred with equal propriety to either origin.*" — *The Century Dictionary.*

In English Grammar we are not studying or teaching Anglo-Saxon, and it seems unwise to labor to separate what the language has inseparably mixed. The indications are that the forms were fused into one because the genius of the language did not favor keeping them apart, preferring one form to three.

Thus:

Climbing mountains is hard work.
To climb mountains is hard work.

But the two forms are not always interchangeable. Thus:

He escaped by *breaking* a window.

Here we cannot say,

He escaped by *to break* a window.

Hence the treatment of this noun-use of the form in *ing* as an infinitive cannot be made consistently to cover all the cases of its use.

4. The **Verbal Noun.** — Many grammarians call the use of the form in *ing* in Example 4 the *verbal noun*. Undoubtedly the participial form so used does have the character of a noun, but it seems better to keep its participial character in evidence, and to call the form "a participle used as a noun" than to treat it as a new word of a different class, without reference to its participial origin by calling it a "verbal noun." If the form is to be treated as a noun, pure and simple, a better name would be the "Participial Noun" corresponding to the "Participial Adjective."

Teachers who prefer to do so may call the form in Example 3 the *Gerund*, and the form in Example 4 the *Verbal Noun*, and know that they have high authority for so doing. The treatment of both these forms as uses of the *Present Participle* is, however, preferred in this book for the reasons above given, and it is believed that on a fair trial this treatment will commend itself, on the score both of simplicity and of unity.

The Form in *ing* Used in Passive Sense. — There is still another use of the form in *ing*, seen in such connections as the following:

Forty and six years was this temple *in building*. — *John* 2: 20.
While the ark was *a preparing*. — 1 *Pet.* 3: 20.

In the second example here the *a* is the representative of the Anglo-Saxon *an*, "on," "in," which is repre-

sented in the first example by "in," "in building;" the form in *ing*, so used signifying that the work of *building* the temple or of *preparing* the ark was going on.

As originally used, the form in *ing* in such phrases is a direct survival of the Anglo-Saxon verbal noun in *ung*, *ing*, and is the object of a preposition. The same form appears in some old ballads; as:

"I'm going *a-milking*, sir," she said.

But with the process of simplification of the language, which is still going on, the little remnant of the preposition has been dropped, so that to speak of going "a-hunting" or "a-milking" would seem hopelessly old-fashioned. Hence, we have left on our hands some such phrases as, "The house is *building*," meaning that the process of *building* the house is going on.

This use of what was originally a verbal noun is ordinarily treated as the present participle with a semi-passive sense, and is so best treated for practical use.

Remarks

This use of the present participle in passive sense, while it has the highest literary authority, is becoming somewhat rare in present English style. The expression "*is being built*" is now very commonly used in place of "*is building*." See the discussion of the phrase in the succeeding paragraphs.

"Is Being Built"

This combination of the present and past participles, with the similar forms of which it is a type, has been strongly censured by eminent critics, but is nevertheless quite generally used, as supplying a manifest need of the language, thus:

Are those papers *copied* yet?
They *are being copied* as fast as possible.

We can hardly supply any form of words which will so clearly and readily express this meaning as the phrase "are being copied."

"They are *copying*," though technically correct, is a mode of expression unusual in current speech, and would seem unnatural. "They are in process of copying" would be very formal. The only way effectually to avoid the form objected to is to change the sentence, and say, "The typewriters *are copying* them," or "We are *having them copied*." But in this latter expression we still join a present and a past participle.

In fact, the joining of present with past forms is something that constantly occurs in English verb-phrases; as, He *has gone;* It *is done;* I *have seen*. The only real question is, whether *be* may be used as an auxiliary of itself; but *have* is constantly used as an auxiliary of itself, so that *be* may be similarly used if the changing demands of the language require it. Because the English language is alive, it is constantly making changes from earlier to modern forms.

This joining of the present to the past participle to express progressive action, as "The work *is being rapidly completed*," is a usage that is certainly on the increase, and bids fair to become an established idiom, if it is not already such.

The Past Participle

This form, as in *loved*, *called*, *given*, always refers to some act or state viewed with reference to the past.

The time of the *past participle* is *past with reference to the time of the principal verb*. The action may not yet have ended, but it began before the action of the principal verb, as may be seen in the following examples:

He lives, *honored* by all;
He lived, *honored* by all;
He will live, *honored* by all.

The *past participle* has some of the qualities of an adjective. It may be used directly as an adjective, as when we speak of "a *given* number," or of "a man *given* (that is, addicted) to drink." Yet it differs from the adjective proper by suggesting the idea of time; the "*given* number" is a number that has been previously assigned; the man "*given* to drink" has accustomed himself to it by many past acts of indulgence. The idea of past action always clings to this form, *given*, however used.

Hence, *given* is a participle, called the *past participle*, because referring to time viewed or thought of as past.

Also, it is to be noted that the word modified by the past participle may be the object, not the subject, of the action. Thus:

"He *gave* the book" becomes
"The book was *given* by him."

Because in such sentences as the latter, the subject of the verb-phrase "was *given*" is the object of the action, this form has been called also the *passive* participle. Often, however, this form has an active meaning, as when we say "He has *given* the book," where the subject of the verb-phrase "has *given*" is also the subject of the action, so that the past participle may be active as well as passive. Thus the same form may be enumerated as the past participle of either voice.

Substitute Term

Participial Adjective. — The past participle used directly with a noun or pronoun is often called — like the present participle in similar use (p. 174) — a *participial adjective*. This term is well enough as a general designation, but is not a distinctive name for either participle, since it is used for both. In such use it is better to parse the word as "the *past participle* used as an adjective."

The Phrase-Participles

The perfect participle, active, "having loved," the present participle, passive, "being loved," and the perfect participle, passive, "having been loved," formed by the aid of auxiliaries, show the same mingling of the qualities of verb and adjective as the past participle.

Any participle may be used as an adjunct of subject or predicate without forming a separate clause as a finite verb would do, thus making a closer connection of ideas. Thus: *Hoping* you are well, I remain, etc. This is much less formal than "I *hope* you are well, and I remain, etc." So, "*Having seen* his friends, he departed," is used in place of "He *saw* his friends, and departed;" or, "Being found trustworthy, he was promoted," instead of "He was found trustworthy, and was promoted." It will be seen that the sentences in the participial form are more closely woven, and have greater unity.

The participle is thus a wonderful contrivance of language for carrying over the idea of the verb into close and vivid connection with other words, to modify a noun, to take an object, or to be itself the subject or the object of a verb or the object of a preposition. The participle expresses the idea of a verb otherwise than as a predicate; it might be called *the non-predicable verb,* or most fittingly "the *participial mode* of the verb," having three *tenses,* present, past, and perfect, since the participles distinctly divide along the line of time. This arrangement would have much to commend it, if it could be adopted by general consent of grammarians.

SECTION VI

IRREGULAR VERBS

(Including Defective and Redundant Verbs)

Irregular Verbs are those that form the past tense and past participle otherwise than by adding *ed* (p. 112); as, *give, take.*

Defective Verbs are those that lack some of the principal parts; as, *can, shall.*

Redundant Verbs are those that have more than one form for the past tense or past participle; as, *shrink*, *swell*.

The letter R. (*regular*) added to any form indicates that the regular form for that part of the verb is also used. (All verbs marked R. are *redundant*.)

Present	*Past*	*Past Participle*
Abide	abode	abode
Arise	arose	arisen
Awake	awoke, R.	awoke, R.
Be	was	been
Bear (*Bring forth*)	bore bare	born
Bear (*carry*)	bore	borne
Beat	beat	beaten beat
Become	became	become
Befall	befell	befallen
Beget	begot begat	begotten begot
Begin	began begun	begun
Behold	beheld	beheld
Belay	belaid, R.	belaid, R.
Bend	bent, R.	bent, R.
Bereave	bereft, R.	bereft, R.
Beseech	besought	besought
Bet	bet, R.	bet, R.
Bid	bid bade	bid bidden
Bind	bound	bound bounden
Bite	bit	bitten bit
Bleed	bled	bled
Blend	blent, R.	blent, R.
Bless	blest, R.	blest, R.
Blow	blew	blown

Present	*Past*	*Past Participle*
Break	broke brake	broke broken
Breed	bred	bred
Bring	brought	brought
Build	built, R.	built, R.
Burn	burnt, R.	burnt, R.
Burst	burst	burst
Buy	bought	bought
Can	could	———
Cast	cast	cast
Catch	caught	caught
Chide	chid chode	chidden chid
Choose	chose	chosen
Cleave (*adhere*)	clave, R.	cleaved
Cleave (*split*)	cleft clove clave	cleft cloven cleaved
Cling	clung	clung
Clothe	clad, R.	clad, R.
Come	came	come
Cost	cost	cost
Creep	crept	crept
Crow	crew, R.	crowed
Cut	cut	cut
Dare	durst, R.	dared
Deal	dealt	dealt
Dig	dug, R.	dug, R.
Do	did	done
Draw	drew	drawn
Dream	dreamt, R.	dreamt, R.

Present	*Past*	*Past Participle*
Dress	drest, R.	drest, R.
Drink	drank	drunk drunken
Drive	drove	driven
Dwell	dwelt, R.	dwelt, R.
Eat	ate eat	eaten
Engrave	engraved	engraven, R.
Fall	fell	fallen
Feed	fed	fed
Feel	felt	felt
Fight	fought	fought
Find	found	found
Flee	fled	fled
Fling	flung	flung
Fly	flew	flown
Forbear	forbore	forborne
Forbid	forbade	forbidden forbid
Forget	forgot	forgotten forgot
Forsake	forsook	forsaken
Freeze	froze	frozen
Get	got	got gotten
Gild	gilt, R.	gilt, R.
Gird	girt, R.	girt, R.
Give	gave	given
Go	went	gone
Grave	graved	graven, R.
Grind	ground	ground
Grow	grew	grown
Hang	hung, R.	hung, R.
Have	had	had
Hear	heard	heard
Heave	hove, R.	hove, R
Hew	hewed	hewn, R.

Present	*Past*	*Past Participle*
Hide	hid	hidden
Hit	hit	hit
Hold	held	held holden
Hurt	hurt	hurt
Keep	kept	kept
Kneel	knelt, R.	knelt, R.
Knit	knit, R.	knit, R.
Know	knew	known
Lade	laded	laden, R.
Lay	laid	laid
Lead	led	led
Lean	leant, R.	leant, R.
Leap	leapt, R.	leapt, R.
Learn	learnt, R.	learnt, R.
Leave	left	left
Lend	lent	lent
Let (*permit*)	let	let
Let (*hinder*)	let, R.	let, R.
Lie* (*recline*)	lay	lain
Light	lit, R.	lit, R.
Lose	lost	lost
Make	made	made
May	might	———
Mean	meant	meant
Meet	met	met
Mow	mowed	mown, R.
Must	———	———
Ought	———	———
Pass	past, R.	past, R.
Pay	paid	paid
Pen† (*enclose*)	pent, R.	pent, R.
Plead	plead, R.	plead, R.
Put	put	put
Quit	quit, R.	quit, R.
———	quoth	———
Rap ‡ (*seize*)	rapt, R.	rapt, R.

* *Lie* (falsify) is regular (*lied*, *lied*). † *Pen* (write) is regular.
‡ *Rap* (strike) is regular.

Present	*Past*	*Past Participle*
Read	read	read
Reave	reft, R.	reft, R.
Rend	rent, R.	rent, R.
Rid	rid	rid
Ride	rode	ridden
Ring* (*sound*)	rang / rung	rung
Rise	rose	risen
Rive	rived	riven, R.
Run	ran	run
Saw	sawed	sawn, R.
Say	said	said
See	saw	seen
Seek	sought	sought
Seethe	sod, R.	sodden, R.
Sell	sold	sold
Send	sent	sent
Set	set	set
Shake	shook	shaken
Shall	should	———
Shape	shaped	shapen, R.
Shave	shaved	shaven, R.
Shear	shore, R.	shorn, R.
Shed	shed	shed
Shine	shone, R.	shone, R.
Shoe	shod	shod
Shoot	shot	shot
Show	showed	shown, R.
Shred	shred, R.	shred, R.
Shrink	shrank / shrunk	shrunk / shrunken
Shut	shut	shut
Sing	sang / sung	sung
Sink	sank / sunk	sunk
Sit	sat	sat

Present	*Past*	*Past Participle*
Slay	slew	slain
Slide	slid	slid / slidden
Sling	slung	slung
Slink	slunk	slunk
Slit	slit, R.	slit, R.
Smell	smelt, R.	smelt, R.
Smite	smote / smit	smitten / smit
Sow	sowed	sown, R.
Speak	spoke	spoken
Speed	sped	sped
Spell	spelt, R.	spelt, R.
Spend	spent	spent
Spill	spilt, R.	spilt, R.
Spin	spun / span	spun
Spit † (*expectorate*)	spat	spit
Split	split	split
Spoil	spoilt, R.	spoilt, R.
Spread	spread	spread
Spring	sprang / sprung	sprung
Stand	stood	stood
Stave	stove, R.	stove, R.
Stay	staid, R.	staid, R.
Steal	stole	stolen
Stick	stuck	stuck
Sting	stung	stung
Stink	stunk / stank	stunk
Strew	strewed	strewn, R.
Stride	strode	stridden
Strike	struck	struck / stricken
String	strung	strung

* *Ring* (surround) is regular (*ringed*, *ringed*).
† *Spit* (transfix) is regular (*spitted*, *spitted*).

Present	*Past*	*Past Participle*
Strive	strove	striven
Strow	strowed	strown, R.
Swear	swore / sware	sworn
Sweat	sweat, R.	sweat, R.
Sweep	swept	swept
Swell	swelled	swollen, R.
Swim	swam / swum	swum
Swing	swung	swung
Take	took	taken
Teach	taught	taught
Tear	tore	torn
Tell	told	told
Think	thought	thought
Thrive	throve, R.	thriven, R.
Throw	threw	thrown
Thrust	thrust	thrust

Present	*Past*	*Past Participle*
Tread	trod	trodden / trod
Wake	woke, R.	woke, R.
Wax	waxed	waxen, R.
Wear	wore	worn
Weave	wove, R.	woven, R.
Wed	wed, R.	wed, R.
Weep	wept	wept
Wet	wet, R.	wet, R.
Whet	whet, R.	whet, R.
Will	would	———
Win	won	won
Wind	wound	wound
Wit / Wot	wist	———
Work	wrought, R.	wrought, R.
Wring	wrung	wrung
Write	wrote	written

SECTION VII

VERBS IN SIMPLIFIED SPELLING

These verbs are all regularly conjugated with final *ed*. The final *t* here given is the spelling that represents the *sound* of *ed* after *ch*, *f*, *k*, *p*, *s*, *sh*, or *x*.

Where the preceding consonant is doubled before *ed*, it is left single before *t;* as, *addressed*, *addrest; dipped*, *dipt.*

The forms in *t* here given are all used by eminent authors, as Shakespeare, Milton, Addison, Tennyson, Lowell, etc.

In the following list, *p* stands for *past tense*, and *p. p.* for *past participle*, the forms for the two being identical.

Present.	*p. & p. p.*	*Present.*	*p. & p. p.*	*Present.*	*p. & p. p.*
address	addressed / *addrest*	express	expressed / *exprest*	possess	possessed / *possest*
blush	blushed / *blusht*	fix	fixed / *fixt*	press	pressed / *prest*
caress	caressed / *carest*	grip	gripped / *gript*	prop	propped / *propt*

Present.	*p. & p. p.*	*Present.*	*p. & p. p.*	*Present.*	*p. & p. p.*
clap	clapped *clapt*	heap	heaped *heapt*	sip	sipped *sipt*
clasp	clasped *claspt*	hush	hushed *hust*	skip	skipped *skipt*
clip	clipped *clipt*	impress	impressed *imprest*	slip	slipped *slipt*
confess	confessed *confest*	kiss	kissed *kist*	step	stepped *stept*
crop	cropped *cropt*	lap	lapped *lapt*	stop	stopped *stopt*
cross	crossed *crost*	lash	lashed *lasht*	strip	stripped *stript*
crush	crushed *crusht*	leap	leaped *leapt*	tap	tapped *tapt*
curse	cursed *curst*	look	looked *lookt*	tip	tipped *tipt*
depress	depressed *deprest*	lop	lopped *lopt*	toss	tossed *tost*
dip	dipped *dipt*	miss	missed *mist*	trap	trapped *trapt*
distress	distressed *distrest*	mix	mixed *mixt*	trip	tripped *tript*
drip	dripped *dript*	nip	nipped *nipt*	vex	vexed *vext*
droop	drooped *droopt*	oppress	oppressed *opprest*	wish	wished *wisht*
drop	dropped *dropt*	pass	passed *past*	wrap	wrapped *wrapt*

NOTE. — The simplified forms above given are recommended by the Simplified Spelling Board (No. 1 Madison Avenue, New York), for immediate use. They mention many other similar forms used by standard authors, as, for instance, that Milton has *admonisht*, *astonisht*, *ceast*, *compast*, *diminisht*, *languisht*, *linkt*, *matcht*, *polisht*, *scorcht*, *supt*, *vanquisht*, *worshipt*, etc.

SECTION VIII

THE ANCIENT OR SOLEMN STYLE

The "Thou System"

Personal forms have almost disappeared from the English verb, as may be seen by referring to the conjugations already given. It is often found that the form

of the verb is precisely the same whether the subject is of the first or third person singular, or of the first, second, or third person plural, as in the past indicative, and in all the forms made by the auxiliaries *shall*, *will*, *may*, *can*, or *must*. The second person singular has a special form of the verb in almost every mode or tense, forming often the only break in an otherwise perfectly simple system.

But the second person singular is obsolete except in our older literature and in the Scriptures, or in forms of prayer or in other uses modeled upon these.* Hence it is preferable to disregard these forms in the ordinary conjugations, and to treat them in a special group, which may be termed the "Thou System." With these may be associated certain forms of the third person singular which are also found only in the Ancient or Solemn Style, being obsolete in modern English.

The form of the verb used with *thou* in the second person singular is obtained by adding *st* or *est* to the form used with *I* in the first person singular; as, I *love*, thou *lovest;* I *give*, thou *givest;* I *loved*, thou *lovedst;* I *gave*, thou *gavest*, etc.

Exceptions.

1. *Have* contracts *havest* to *hast* (thou *hast*); *do* contracts *doest* to *dost* (thou *dost*); *shall* takes the form *shalt;* and *will*, the form *wilt* (thou *shalt*, thou *wilt*); *must* is unchanged in all persons and in both numbers; *be* forms the second person singular *art*, in the present indicative (thou *art*), and the second person singular *wast*, in the past indicative (thou *wast*).

* Note. — The forms of the second person singular used by the Society of Friends differ in many ways from the ancient literary style, and constitute a special religious phraseology peculiar to that communion. These need not here be considered.

2. The Subjunctive Mode uses in the second person singular the form of the verb which is used with the first person, this form continuing unchanged for all persons in both numbers; as, (if) I *love*, (if) thou *love*, etc. It was very common, however, in the Ancient Style to use the indicative forms after *if*, *though*, etc.; as, (if) thou *lovest;* (if) thou *hast.* The present subjunctive of *be* uses the root-form *be* in all persons and in both numbers, — (if) I *be*, (if) thou *be*, etc.; the past subjunctive of *be*, however, has a special form for the second person singular, different from the form used with the first person singular, — (if) I *were*, (if) thou *wert.*

3. The Imperative Mode uses the root-form of the verb, — *love* thou, *go* thou, etc. The Modern Style usually omits *thou*, which, however, is always understood.

The Third Person Singular

The Ancient Style added *th* or *eth* to the form of the verb used in the first person, where the Modern Style adds *s;* as, I *love*, he *loveth.*

Haveth was contracted to *hath*, and *doeth* to *doth.*

In the following statement, the forms for all persons of the singular number in the Ancient or Solemn Style are given, in order to keep the unity of the conjugations. The plural forms, involving no change, are not here given.

AUXILIARY VERBS

HAVE

The forms of *have* in auxiliary use will be found in the full conjugation of *have* as a principal verb, below.

TENSES	*SHALL*
Present.	I *shall*, thou *shalt*, he *shall.*
Past	I *should*. thou *shouldst*, he *should.*

TENSES	
	WILL
Present.	I *will*, thou *wilt*, he *will*.
Past.	I *would*, thou *wouldst*, he *would*.
	MAY
Present.	I *may*, thou *mayst*, he *may*.
Past.	I *might*, thou *mightst*, he *might*.
	CAN
Present.	I *can*, thou *canst*, he *can*.
Past.	I *could*, thou *couldst*, he *could*.
	MUST
Present.	I, thou, he *must*. (No change.)
	DO *
	Indicative Mode
Present.	I *do*, thou *dost*, he *does*.
Past.	I *did*, thou *didst*, he *did*.
	Subjunctive Mode
Present.	(If) I, thou, he *do*.
	Imperative Mode
Present.	*do* thou.
	BE †
	Indicative Mode
Present.	I **am**, thou **art**, he **is**.
Pres. Perfect.	I *have*, thou *hast*, he *hath* **been**.
Past.	I **was**, thou **wast**, he **was**.
Past Perfect.	I *had*, thou *hadst*, he *had* **been**.
Future.	
(declarative)	I *shall*, thou *wilt*, he *will* **be**.
(purposive)	I *will*, thou *shalt*, he *shall* **be**.
Fut. Perfect.	
(declarative)	I *shall*, thou *wilt*, he *will* || *have* **been**.
(purposive)	I *will*, thou *shalt*, he *shall* || *have* **been**.

* NOTE. — *Do*, as a principal verb, has the full conjugation of an irregular verb. Only the forms in auxiliary use are above given.

† NOTE. — *Be* is an auxiliary, in all its forms, so that its conjugation is the same, whether it is regarded as an auxiliary or as a principal verb.

TENSES	*Subjunctive Mode*
Present.	(If) I, thou, he **be.**
Pres. Perfect.	(If) I, thou, he *have* **been.**
Past.	(If) **I were,** thou **wert,** he **were.**
Past Perfect.	(Same as *Past Perfect Indicative.*)

Potential Mode

(Second Person only) *

Present.	thou *mayst, canst,* or *must* **be.**
Pres. Perfect.	thou *mayst, canst,* or *must* || *have* **been.**
Past.	thou *mightst, couldst, wouldst,* or *shouldst* **be.**
Past Perfect.	thou *mightst, couldst, wouldst,* or *shouldst* || *have* **been.**

Imperative Mode

be thou, or *do* thou **be.**

THE SEMI-AUXILIARIES

LET †

Indicative Mode

Present. **I let,** thou **lettest,** he **letteth**

Subjunctive Mode

Present. (If) I, thou, he **let.**

Imperative Mode

Present. **let** thou, or *do* thou **let.**

OUGHT

Present. **I ought,** thou **oughtest,** he **ought.**

* NOTE. — The first and third person singular are the same as in present style.

† NOTE. — *Let* has the ordinary conjugation in all modes and tenses of an irregular verb. Only the forms having some peculiarity in the Ancient Style are above given. In the often quoted text, "Now *lettest* thou thy servant depart in peace" (*Luke* 2 : 29), the verb "lettest" is not the imperative, but the present indicative, second person singular, equivalent to "thou dost *let*" or "thou art *letting*."

PRINCIPAL VERBS

*HAVE**

TENSES	*Indicative Mode*
Present.	I **have**, thou **hast**, he **hath.**
Pres. Perfect.	I *have*, thou *hast*, he *hath* **had.**
Past.	I **had**, thou **hadst**, he **had.**
Past Perfect.	I *had*, thou *hadst*, he *had* **had.**
Future.	
(declarative)	I *shall*, thou *wilt*, he *will* **have.**
(purposive)	I *will*, thou *shalt*, he *shall* **have.**
Fut. Perfect.	
(declarative)	I *shall*, thou *wilt*, he *will* || *have* **had.**
(purposive)	I *will*, thou *shalt*, he *shall* || *have* **had.**

Subjunctive Mode

Present	(If) I, thou, he **have.**
Pres. Perfect.	(If) I, thou, he *have* **had.**
	(*Past* and *Past Perfect* same as in the *Indicative*.)

Potential Mode

(Second Person only given)

Present.	thou *mayst*, *canst*, or *must* **have.**
Pres. Perfect.	thou *mayst*, *canst*, or *must* || *have* **had.**
Past.	thou *mightst*, *couldst*, *wouldst*, or *shouldst* **have.**
Past Perfect.	thou *mightst*, *couldst*, *wouldst*, or *shouldst* || *have* **had.**

Imperative Mode

Present.	**have** thou, or *do* thou **have.**

LOVE

ACTIVE VOICE

Indicative Mode

Present.	I **love**, thou **lovest**, he **loveth.**
Pres. Perfect.	I *have*, thou *hast*, he *hath* **loved.**
Past.	I **loved**, thou **lovedst**, he **loved.**
Past Perfect.	I *had*, thou *hadst*, he *had* **loved.**

* NOTE. — The auxiliary uses of *have* are here included.

TENSES

Future.

(declarative) I *shall*, thou *wilt*, he *will* **love.**

(purposive) I *will*, thou *shalt*, he *shall* **love.**

Fut. Perfect.

(declarative) I *shall*, thou *wilt*, he *will* || *have* **loved.**

(purposive) I *will*, thou *shalt*, he *shall* || *have* **loved.**

*Subjunctive Mode**

Present. (If) I, thou, he **love.**

Pres. Perfect. (If) I, thou, he *have* **loved.**

(*Past* and *Past Perfect* same as in the *Indicative.*)

Imperative Mode

Present. **love** thou, or *do* thou **love.**

PASSIVE VOICE

The *Passive Voice* simply adds the past participle, *loved*, to the various forms of the Ancient or Solemn Style of the verb *be*. (Compare PASSIVE VOICE, p. 160.)

REMARKS

Since a relative pronoun always takes the person and number of its antecedent, when that antecedent is a singular noun or pronoun in direct address (and therefore, of course, in the *second* person singular), the relative referring to it must be in the *second* person singular, and must take a verb in the *second* person singular; as, "Our Father who *art* in heaven."

Such verbs are constantly so given in the Authorized Version of the Scriptures, as well as by the best ancient or modern authors.

> Harp of the North! that mouldering long *hast hung*
> By the witch-elm that shades St. Fillan's spring.
>
> SCOTT *Lady of the Lake*, can. i, l. 1.

* NOTE. — With all verbs, the Ancient or Solemn Style frequently uses the forms of the Indicative in conditional clauses, after *if*, *though*, etc., instead of the Subjunctive; as, If thou *art;* If thou *hast;* If thou *seest*, etc.

SECTION IX

To Parse a Verb. — State:

1. That it is a verb, and why (definition of verb);
2. Whether it is regular or irregular (giving its principal parts);
3. Whether it is transitive or intransitive (if transitive, mentioning its object);
4. Voice (if transitive);
5. Mode, tense, person, and number;
6. Subject with which it agrees (giving rule for agreement).

Examples

I. What an advocate *calls* a plan, an opponent *will call* a plot.

calls is a verb, because it is a word denoting action; a regular verb, because conjugated by adding *ed* to the root-form; Principal Parts,* present *call*, past *called*, past participle *called;* a transitive verb, because it takes an object (*plan*); in the active voice, indicative mode, third person, and singular number, agreeing with the noun *advocate* as its subject. Rule 1.

In practice this form may be much abridged. Thus:

will call is a regular verb (*call*, *called*, *called*); transitive, as taking an object (*plot*); future indicative active, third person singular, agreeing with the noun *opponent* as its subject. Rule 1.

II. This music *crept* by me upon the waters.

crept is an irregular verb (*creep*, *crept*, *crept*); intransitive, as not taking an object; indicative mode, past tense, third person, and singular number, agreeing with the noun *music* as its subject. Rule 1.

EXERCISE 34

Parse all verbs in Exercises 21, 23, 33 (pp. 106, 127, 173).

* Note. — It is well that the principal parts should be always given, in order to fix attention upon this item as important. In the case of Irregular Verbs, the principal parts should never be omitted; they cannot be repeated too often or made too familiar. No person is qualified to speak or write the English language who cannot give the principal parts of any irregular verb at sight.

THE ADVERB

SECTION I

DEFINITION AND USE

An ***Adverb*** is a word used to modify a verb, an adjective, or another adverb; as, The birds sing *sweetly;* The error was *instantly* manifest; He spoke *very* hastily.

The word *adverb* is from the Latin *ad*, to, at, and *verbum*, word, verb, and thus signifies primarily a word joined to a verb (as a modifier), but also applies to the same word when joined to an adjective or adverb as a modifier.

Exception. — A few adverbs are used as adjuncts, or modifiers of nouns or pronouns; as, *altogether*, *chiefly*, *entirely*, *especially*, *hardly*, *likewise*, *merely*, *mostly*, *not only*, *particularly*, *partly*, *scarcely*, *simply*, *solely*, *too*. Thus, "*Scarcely* a star appeared;" here we cannot transfer the adverb to the verb, for "A star *scarcely* appeared" would have a very different meaning. "*Not* a man who was expected was present" signifies that of all the men expected no one was present; but if we say, "A man who was expected was *not* present," this would imply that some one man who was expected was not present, though many others may have been. The meaning is wholly changed if the "not" is detached from the noun. This use of *not* is very frequent.

> *Not* enjoyment and *not* sorrow
> Is our destined end or way.
>
> LONGFELLOW *Psalm of Life*, st. 3.

> *Not* a drum was heard, *not* a funeral note,
> As his corse to the rampart we hurried.
>
> CHAS. WOLFE *The Burial of Sir John Moore at Corunna*, st. 1.

The same construction appears in such phrases as "*not* (or *never*) a word," "*not* a bit," "*not* a jot," "*not* a whit," "not a moment," etc.

This usage must be accepted as an established English idiom which we need not attempt exactly to explain.

Remarks

1. The adverb is to the verb what the adjective is to the noun, having a descriptive or limiting effect. The adverb expresses the action of the verb as stronger or weaker, or draws it off in some special direction of space, time, or condition, as a switch deflects an electric current without changing its essential character. A similar effect is produced by the adverb upon an adjective or another adverb.

2. An adverb is equivalent to a prepositional phrase containing the corresponding adjective and some such noun as *manner*, *place*, *time*, or *degree;* as, *finely* — *in* a *fine* manner; *formerly* — *at* a *former* time; *highly* — *to* a *high* degree.

3. When in doubt whether an adjective or an adverb is required, the matter may usually be settled by inquiring whether we could use in that connection the phrase "in a —— manner," filling the blank with the corresponding adjective; thus we say, "He looked *fierce*," but "He spoke *fiercely;*" in the first sentence we could not substitute the phrase "in a *fierce* manner," while in the second we could fittingly use it. Sometimes the substituted phrase would need to be "in a —— place;" "at a —— time;" or "to a —— degree."

SECTION II

I. CLASSES OF ADVERBS

Adverbs are divided according to their meaning into six classes as follows:

Adverbs of (1) Place; (2) Time; (3) Manner; (4) Cause; (5) Number; (6) Degree.

Class I. Adverbs of Place

Adverbs of place indicate location, direction, source, or the like. They answer such questions as, "In what place? (Where?)" "From what place? (Whence?)" "To what place? (Whither?)"

Among the chief adverbs of place are the following:

Above, abroad, afar, after, anywhere, away, back, backward, backwards, behind, below, down, downward, everywhere, far, first, foremost, forth, forward, forwards, hence, here, hither, nowhere, somewhere, thence, there, thither, up, upward, whence, where, whither, yonder.

Class II. Adverbs of Time

Adverbs of time indicate date, duration, frequency, or the like. They answer such questions as "At what time?" "For what length of time?" "At how many times?" "At what intervals?" "When, how long, how often?"

Among the chief adverbs of time are the following:

After, again, ago, always, before, ever, forever, frequently, hereafter, immediately, never, now, often, seldom, sometimes, soon, then, when, whenever, while, until, yet.

Adverbs referring to specified times are readily formed by adding *ly* to the noun denoting the period; as, *daily, monthly, weekly, yearly*, etc.; other adverbs of this kind are *to-day, to-morrow, to-night, yesterday*, etc.*

Class III. Adverbs of Manner

Adverbs of manner indicate either (1) the manner in which an action, state, or quality is manifested, or (2) the manner in which it is stated.

They answer such questions as, "In what manner?" "In what way affirmed?" "How?"

Among the chief adverbs of manner are the following:

(1) *anywhere, anyway, apart, how, ill, so, thus, well*, etc.

* NOTE. — *To-day, to-morrow, to-night, yesterday*, etc., are also used as nouns.

To these must be added the countless adverbs formed by adding *ly* to adjectives; as, *badly*, *easily*, etc.

(2) *certainly*, *doubtless*, *however*, *indeed*, *no*, *not*, *perhaps*, *probably*, *still*, *surely*, *truly*, *undoubtedly*, *yes*.*

Class IV. Adverbs of Cause

Adverbs of cause indicate a cause, reason, purpose, or result, answering such questions as, "For what cause?" "On what account?" "For what reason or purpose?" "To what end?" "Why?"

Among the chief adverbs of cause are the following:

Consequently, *hence*, *then*, *thence*, *therefore*, *wherefore*, *why*.

Class V. Adverbs of Number

Adverbs of number are formed from the ordinal numerals by the addition of *ly;* as, *secondly*, *thirdly*, etc.

First, however, is itself an adverb, and does not need the *ly; firstly* has limited use, but the preferred method of enumeration is, *first*, *secondly*, *thirdly*, etc. Adverbs of number may be called Numeral Adverbs.

Class VI. Adverbs of Degree

Adverbs of degree indicate the greater or less intensity of an action or quality.

Among the chief adverbs of degree are the following:

Almost, *altogether*, *chiefly*, *completely*, *enough*, *equally*, *even*, *exceedingly*, *extremely*, *little*, *much*, *more*, *most*, *nearly*, *only*, *partially*, *partly*, *quite*, *scarcely*, *somewhat*, *too*.

* NOTE. — *No*, *not*, and *never* are often termed *negative adverbs*, and *yes* an *affirmative adverb*.

II. SPECIAL GROUPS

Other divisions may be made, including in each group some of the adverbs already named. Thus:

1. **Demonstrative Adverbs,** answering to the demonstrative pronouns *this* and *that.*

These are *hence, here, hither, then, thence, there, thither, thus.*

2. **Interrogative Adverbs,** used in asking questions.

These include such words as *how, when, whence, where, whither, why.* They may be used either in direct questions; as, *Why* did he sell it? or in indirect questions; as, I do not know *why* he sold it.

3. **Conjunctive or Relative Adverbs.** — These, besides their use in denoting place, manner, time, or the like, serve also to join a subordinate to a principal clause; as, I saw him *when* he came.

Here "when" is an adverb of time modifying "came;" but it also *relates* to the preceding clause "I saw him," to which it conjoins its own clause, just as the relative *who* joins the clause in which it is found to the principal clause to which it relates.

Among the chief conjunctive or relative adverbs are the following:

As, how, now, since, so, thence, when, whence, whenever, where, whither, why.

Some of these adverbs have the full effect of conjunctions, and closely resemble them. Some other relative adverbs have the conjunctive effect; as, *after, before, till, until,* etc.

Adverbs Identical in Form with Adjectives. — The words *deep, early, hard, long, loud, quick,* and some others, are sometimes used as adjectives, and sometimes as adverbs; consequently their comparatives and superlatives may also be used in this double relation.

Thus we may say "a *quick* trip," or, "go *quick;*" "a *deep* well," or, "drink *deep;*" "an *earlier* hour," or, "come *earlier;*" "a *louder* noise," or, "read *louder;*" "a *longer* journey," or, "stay *longer.*" From the adjective *hard* is formed the adverb *hardly*, which differs in meaning from the adverb *hard*, having the sense of *scarcely.* The sentence "He was *hard* pressed" would be changed in meaning if we were to say, "He was *hardly* pressed."

SECTION III

COMPARISON OF ADVERBS

Adverbs, like adjectives, admit of comparison, except that a smaller number can be compared; and these are more commonly compared by *more* and *most*, or *less* and *least;* as, *wisely, more wisely, most wisely; keenly, less keenly, least keenly.*

Comparison by *er* and *est*. — A few adverbs are compared by adding *er* and *est*, chiefly those that have the same form as the corresponding adjectives; as, *deep, deeper, deepest; early, earlier, earliest; fast, faster, fastest; hard, harder, hardest; long, longer, longest; often, oftener, oftenest; quick, quicker, quickest; soon, sooner, soonest.*

Irregular Comparison. — Adverbs compared irregularly are the following:

badly ill	worse	worst.	little	less	least.
far	farther further	farthest. furthest.	much	more	most.
fore	former	foremost. first.	near	nearer	nearest. next.
late	later	latest. last.	well	better	best.

SECTION IV

SPECIAL USES, SUGGESTIONS, AND CAUTIONS

Uses of *only*. — The word *only* is an adjective and conjunction as well as an adverb, and as such its use must be carefully guarded.

We may say, "the *only* man," "the *only* time," "one man *only*," using *only* as an adjective; or, "I speak *only* that we may understand each other," using *only* as a conjunction; or, "I could *only* rejoice in his prosperity," using *only* as an adverb.

The study of the best form of expression in such cases belongs to rhetoric.

Only is (1) an adjective when it modifies a noun or pronoun; (2) an adverb when it modifies a verb, adjective, or adverb; and (3) a conjunction when it connects phrases or clauses.

Adverbs used Independently. — Adverbs are at times used without any direct connection with other words, as *why* or *well* at the beginning of a sentence. "*Why*, how did you come here?" "*Well*, that is a surprise." So used, these adverbs have the force of interjections.

Yes, as an affirmative adverb, answering a question, has the effect of repeating affirmatively the substance of the question; as, "Will you go?" "*Yes*." (Equivalent to "I will go.")

No, a negative adverb, as used in answering a question, has the effect of repeating negatively the substance of the question; as, "Are you tired?" "*No*." (Equivalent to "I am *not* tired.")

No and *not*. — *No* is not used in direct connection with a verb; we do not say "He will *no* come," but "He will *not* come." But *no* is sometimes used as an alternative after *whether;* as, Send me an answer, whether or *no*.

The Double Negative. — In English * two negatives in the same construction cancel each other and equal an affirmative. Thus, "There was *no* member who was *not* present" is equivalent to, "*Every* member *was* present." If the two negatives cannot fitly cancel each other, the double use is an error, and one negative or the other should be changed. "I *won't never* go" should be, "I won't (will not) *ever* go," or "I will *never* go."

Two negatives may sometimes have appropriate use, intentionally cancelling each other; as, That is *not im*possible.

Error. — It is not correct to use *more* and *most* before either adjectives or adverbs that are already in the comparative or the superlative degree; thus, *more sooner*, *most highest*, are incorrect. Such expressions are called double comparatives and double superlatives. They were frequently used in the Elizabethan period of English literature.

"That was the *most unkindest* cut of all." — SHAKESPEARE *Julius Cæsar*, act iii, sc. 2.

Forms That May Mislead. — Not all words ending in *ly* are adverbs; some adjectives have this termination; as, *cleanly*, *godly*, *goodly*, *homely*, *lovely*, *kindly*, *manly*, *timely*, *untimely*.

Such adjectives have usually no corresponding adverbs, so that the adverbial meaning can only be expressed by an adverbial phrase; as, in a *lovely* way. *Kindly*, however, is also an adverb, so that we may say, "He had a *kindly* face" (adj.), or, "He spoke *kindly*" (adv.); we may form from the adjective *manful* an adverb, *manfully*, or we may use a phrase, and say, "in a *manly* way."

Caution. — Care must be taken never to use an adverb ending in *ly* as an adjective. Do not say "a *softly* touch," but "a *soft* touch," or "to touch *softly*."

* NOTE. — In some languages, as Greek and French, two negatives may strengthen each other, but the English does not ordinarily admit of such construction.

SECTION V

To Parse an Adverb —

State that it is an adverb, and why (definition); to what class it belongs; what degree of comparison (if any); compare it (if compared); tell what word it modifies; special use, if any.

EXERCISE 35

Point out and parse all the adverbs in the following extracts:

The first thing naturally when one enters a scholar's study or library is to look at his books. One gets a notion very speedily of his tastes and the range of his pursuits by a glance round his book-shelves. — O. W. HOLMES *The Poet at the Breakfast Table, viii.*

I love vast libraries; yet there is a doubt,
If one be better with them or without, —
Unless he use them wisely, and, indeed,
Knows the high art of what and how to read.
J. G. SAXE *The Library.*

The summer dawn's reflected hue
To purple changed Loch Katrine blue,
Mildly and soft the western breeze
Just kiss'd the lake, just stirr'd the trees,
And the pleased lake, like maiden coy,
Trembled but dimpled not for joy.
SCOTT *Lady of the Lake*, can. iii, st. 2.

And the spring comes slowly up this way.
COLERIDGE *Christabel*, pt. i.

Music is well said to be the speech of angels.
CARLYLE *Essays. The Opera.*

The wood-robin sings at my door,
And her song is the sweetest I hear
From all the sweet birds that incessantly pour
Their notes through the noon of the year.
JAMES G. CLARKE *The Wood Robin.*

He has moved a little nearer
To the Master of all music.
LONGFELLOW *Hiawatha*, pt. xv.

One flag, one land, one heart, one hand,
One Nation evermore!
O. W. HOLMES *Voyage of the Good Ship Union, Poems of the Class of '29.*

The music in my heart I bore,
Long after it was heard no more.
WORDSWORTH *The Solitary Reaper.*

How it pours, pours, pours,
In a never-ending sheet!
How it drives beneath the doors!
How it soaks the passer's feet!
How it rattles on the shutter!
How it rumples up the lawn!
How 'twill sigh, and moan, and mutter,
From darkness until dawn.
ROSSITER JOHNSON *Rhyme of the Rain.*

THE PREPOSITION

SECTION I

DEFINITION AND USE

A **Preposition** is a word that shows the relation between some word called its *object* and some other word which is its *antecedent;* as,

	(antecedent)	(preposition)	(object)
I	went	*to*	New York.

A preposition is a *relation-word;* it belongs to the class of words called "connectives."

The word *preposition* is derived from the Latin *pre*, before, and *pono*, place. The *preposition* is so called because it is ordinarily *placed before* the noun or pronoun which is its object, and at all events comes *before its object in thought*, so that we think of the object as depending upon the preposition.

REMARKS

In English the preposition may at times appropriately, and very forcibly, follow the noun or pronoun which is its object.

> There is no better way than that they spoke *of*.
> SHAKESPEARE *Merry Wives of Windsor*, act iv, sc. 4, l. 32.

The soil out of which such men as he are made is good to be born *on*, good to live *on*, good to die *for* and to be buried *in*. — LOWELL *Among My Books, Second Series. Garfield.*

When used with the relative pronoun *that*, the preposition *must* follow its object; as, This is the book *that* I came *for*.

In some languages the preposition determines the form of the noun which is its object, and is hence said to *govern* it; in English the preposition has no effect on the form of the noun, and in but a few instances on that of the pronoun. In our language the object of a preposition is the word that *follows it in thought.*

The chief relations denoted by prepositions are those of source, destination, direction, situation, position, cause, instrument, agency, etc.

The *antecedent* of a preposition may be a noun, pronoun, adjective, verb, adverb, or an entire phrase; as, There is the STEAMER *for* Liverpool; SOME *of* the pupils were late; That is GOOD *for* nothing; RUN *to* your base; He came EXACTLY *at* the moment.

The *object* of a preposition is a noun, a pronoun, or some word or phrase used as a noun; as, Start *for* SCHOOL; give the book *to* HIM.

Instead of a noun or pronoun, the preposition may be followed by: (1) A verb (which is the regular usage of the infinitive); as, to *go*, to *be*, etc.; (2) An adjective; as, from *bad* to *worse;* (3) An adverb; as, at *once;* the hall is lighted from *above;* (4) A phrase; as, There is happiness in *doing right.*

RULE. — A noun or pronoun which is the object of a preposition is always in the objective case.

With pronouns that are declined the rule is of great importance; we must say: "*from* me;" "*to* him;" "*of* us;" "*to* them;" "*from* whom;" etc.

When a pronoun is separated by intervening words from the preposition which governs it, care should be taken that it be in the proper objective form; thus:

> When all things I heard and saw,
> *Me*, their master, waited *for*.
>
> WHITTIER *Barefoot Boy*, st. 3.

We correctly say, "*Whom* was that made *for?*" or "*For whom* was that made?" Such expressions as "*Who* are you looking *for?*" have a certain colloquial use, and some authors would allow them as correct, but they are not in the most approved use.

"It was meant for *you* and *I*." — Such expressions are very common, and seem to many persons correct, because "you and I" is a form in frequent and correct use. Using the nominative, we properly say, "*You* and *I* will go;" but when we use the pronouns as the objects of a verb or of a preposition, both are in the objective case. This will be seen at once *by leaving out the words*, "*you and*," when it would be impossible to say "It was meant for *I*;" we must say "It was meant for *me*," hence also "for *you and me*." Numerous other expressions come under the same rule.

A full list of English prepositions will be found in the Appendix under PREPOSITIONS LISTED AND DISCRIMINATED.

Phrase-Prepositions. — There are also many phrases formed with prepositions, which, while they may be easily separated into their elements, are yet always used as phrases, and have all the effect of compound prepositions.

Among such phrases are the following:

according to, *on account of*, *because of*, *with* or *in respect to*, *in spite of*, *by means of*, *with* or *in regard to*, *in consequence of*, *with* or *in reference to*, *as to*, etc. The meaning of such phrases is

usually evident from a knowledge of the separate words, and need not be particularly explained. These are best parsed as *prepositional phrases.*

DISTINCTIONS

The meanings and uses of the various prepositions are so many that they can only be learned from a good dictionary and from books on language and rhetoric, together with the reading of the best authors and careful attention to the prepositional forms which they employ. Some distinctions are pointed out in the Appendix under PREPOSITIONS LISTED AND DISCRIMINATED.

It is important to remember that most prepositions have more than one meaning, while some have very many. False distinctions have been often made by treating one meaning of a preposition as if it were the only meaning.

PARTICIPIAL PREPOSITIONS

Many participles, as *barring*, *bating*, *concerning*, *considering*, *during*, *excepting*, *notwithstanding*, *past*, *pending*, *regarding*, *respecting*, *saving*, *touching*, etc., are used without direct connection with a subject, and with the force of prepositions; as, I spoke with him *concerning* this.

Concerning may be exactly rendered by *about*, though not coextensive with the latter word. *Considering* is commonly used in a depreciatory sense, implying allowance for or deduction of the things considered; as, "He did well *considering* his age," or "— *considering* the difficulties he had to meet."

SECTION II

SPECIAL USES OF PREPOSITIONS

1. **Associated Prepositions.** — Prepositions are sometimes combined to denote various phases of some relation; as, "The wave slipped *from under the brig;*" the wave did not slip *from* the brig nor *under* the brig, but

from under. Such a combination is often called *a complex preposition.*

2. **Prepositions Used as Adverbs.** — A preposition is often used without an object with the force of an adverb; as, to look *on;* to look *up;* to sink *down;* to stand *by.*

3. **Inseparable Prepositions.** — A preposition may be so closely connected with a certain verb that the expression has all the force of a compound, and an intransitive verb so attended may be used with its preposition in the passive form. There are many such combinations; as, to laugh *at;* to look *into*, *on* or *upon*, *over*, *through*, or *up;* to attend *to.* Thus we may have, "The crowd *laughed at* him," or "He *was laughed at* by the crowd;" "The plan was *looked upon* favorably;" "This matter must be *looked up;*" etc.

PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES

A prepositional phrase is composed of a preposition and its object together with such modifying word or words as the object may have.

A prepositional phrase may relate to —

1. A noun; as, "The caves *of Kentucky* are wonderful."
2. A verb; as, "The river rises *in the mountains.*"
3. An adjective; as, "The river is clear *in the mountains.*"
4. An adverb; as, "He acted inconsistently *with his professions.*"

If the prepositional phrase modifies a noun or a pronoun as an adjective does, it is called an *adjective phrase modifier;* as, "He is a man *of truth*" is equivalent to "He is a *truthful* man." If the prepositional phrase modifies a verb, an adjective, or an adverb, it is an *adverbial phrase modifier.* "He spoke *with energy*" is equivalent to "He spoke *energetically.*"

SECTION III

To Parse a Preposition —

State that it is a preposition (definition) and give its object and antecedent, showing the meaning conveyed by the preposition as a connective in this case.

If a prepositional phrase has special use as noun, adjective, etc., explain that use.

EXERCISE 36

Point out and parse all the prepositions in the following extracts; also, all the prepositions in Exercise 35 (p. 201).

The manly part is to do with might and main what you can do. — EMERSON *The Conduct of Life, Wealth.*

For the whole world, without a native home,
Is nothing but a prison of larger room.
ABRAHAM COWLEY *To the Bishop of Lincoln*, l. 27.

Where did you come from, baby dear?
Out of the Everywhere into here.
GEO. MACDONALD *Song in "At the Back of the North Wind,"* ch. 33.

The true University of these days is a collection of Books. — CARLYLE *Heroes and Hero-Worship. The Hero as a Man of Letters.*

Many men are mere warehouses full of merchandise — the head, the heart, are stuffed with goods. . . . There are apartments in their souls which were once tenanted by taste, and love, and joy, and worship, but they are all deserted now, and the rooms are filled with earthy and material things. — HENRY WARD BEECHER *Life Thoughts.*

In this world a man must either be anvil or hammer.
LONGFELLOW *Hyperion*, bk. iv, ch. 6.

Women know
The way to rear up children (to be just);
They know a simple, merry, tender knack
Of tying sashes, fitting baby-shoes,
And stringing pretty words that make no sense,
And kissing full sense into empty words;
Which things are corals to cut life upon,
Although such trifles.
E. B. BROWNING *Aurora Leigh*, bk. i, l. 48.

Laugh. and the world laughs with you.
ELLA WHEELER WILCOX *Solitude.*

THE CONJUNCTION

SECTION I

DEFINITION AND USE

A **Conjunction** is a part of speech that connects words, clauses, or sentences, or shows relation between sentences.

The word *conjunction* is from the Latin, *con*, with, and *jungo*, join; it is a conjoining or connecting word.

LIST OF CONJUNCTIONS

The principal conjunctions are the following:

Also, although, and, as, because, both, but, either, except, for, however, if, lest, neither, nevertheless, nor, notwithstanding, only, or, provided, save, seeing, since, so, still, than, that, then, therefore, though, unless, what, when, whereas, whereat, whereby, wherefor, wherefore, wherein, whereof, whereupon, wherever (*where'er*), *whether, while, without, yet.*

SECTION II

CLASSES OF CONJUNCTIONS

There are two principal classes of conjunctions. (1) Coordinate conjunctions; (2) Subordinate conjunctions.

1. Coordinate Conjunctions

A coördinate conjunction is a conjunction that joins coördinate elements, that is, elements of equal order or rank. The coordinate elements thus joined may be (1) Two principal or independent clauses; (2) Two subordinate or dependent clauses; (3) two words; (4) two phrases; the two clauses, phrases, or words having the same grammatical relation.

Coordinate conjunctions may be subdivided into: — (1) Copulative; (2) Disjunctive; (3) Adversative.

A *copulative conjunction* is one that denotes addition; as, *also*, *and*, *moreover*.

A *disjunctive conjunction* is one that denotes separation; as, *but*, *either*, *else*, *or*, *nor*.

Disjunctive conjunctions that denote opposition are called *adversative;* as, *but*, *however*, *yet*.

2. Subordinate Conjunctions

A subordinate conjunction is one that joins a subordinate element to the principal element of the sentence; as, John said *that* he would go. The divisions of subordinate conjunctions are

(1) Those denoting the relation of time; as, *since*, *until*, *as long as*, *as soon as*, etc.

(2) Those denoting reason or cause; as, *as*, *because*, *for*, etc.

(3) Those denoting contingency or supposition; as, *if*, *though*, *unless*, *provided*, etc.

(4) Those denoting purpose or result; as, *lest*, *that*, *in order that*, *so that*.

(5) *Than*, a conjunction denoting comparison, following adjectives or adverbs in the comparative degree (see p. 98 (*d*); also p. 303).

The clauses of compound sentences are joined by coordinate conjunctions (see PART II, p. 309); the subordinate clauses of complex sentences are joined to the principal clause by subordinate conjunctions (see PART II, p. 302).

CAUTION. — It must be remembered that *lest* means "that not," and we must avoid supplying an unnecessary *not*, which would

reverse the meaning. To say, "A young man must take heed *lest* he be *not* ensnared in temptation," would imply that it is desirable that he should be "ensnared." Omit the *not*.

CORRELATIVE CONJUNCTIONS

Correlative conjunctions are those used in pairs or series, often in clauses that succeed each other in the same sentence, and neither of which makes complete sense without the other or others.

Correlative conjunctions are: *although — yet, as — as, as — so, both — and, either — or, if — then, neither — nor, now — now, now — then, so — as, though — yet, whereas — therefore, whether — or.*

1. *Either* he *or* I must do the work.
2. *Neither* he *nor* I can do the work.
3. Milton was *not only* a poet, *but also* a man of affairs.
4. *Both* William *and* Henry will be present.
5. He does not care *whether* he goes *or* stays.

Or or *Nor* after *Not.* — The conjunction *neither* must take as its correlative *nor;* but when *not* is used, either *or* or *nor* may follow, but with difference of meaning, *nor* being more strongly adversative; as, Will he *not* come *or* send (one or the other)? but, Will he *not* come *nor* send (and not even send)?

SECTION III

To Parse a Conjunction —

State that it is a conjunction, and why (definition); tell what words, phrases, or clauses it connects.

EXERCISE 37

Point out and parse all the conjunctions in the following extracts; also in Exercises 35 and 36 (pp. 201, 207).

We prize books, and they prize them most who are themselves wise. — EMERSON *Letters and Social Aims. Quotation and Originality.*

As the rolling stone gathers no moss, so the roving heart gathers no affections. — MRS. JAMESON *Studies. Detached Thoughts. Sternberg's Novels.*

Gather ye rosebuds while ye may,
Old Time is still a-flying,
And this same flower that smiles to-day,
To-morrow will be dying.
HERRICK *To the Virgins to make much of Time.*

The world goes up and the world goes down,
And the sunshine follows the rain;
And yesterday's sneer and yesterday's frown
Can never come over again.
CHARLES KINGSLEY *Songs*, ii.

Character is higher than intellect. . . . A great soul will be strong to live, as well as to think. — EMERSON *The American Scholar.*

We knew it would rain, for the poplars showed
The white of their leaves, the amber grain
Shrunk in the wind, — and the lightning now
Is tangled in tremulous skeins of rain.
T. B. ALDRICH *Before the Rain.*

Shakespeare is not our poet, but the world's.
WALTER SAVAGE LANDOR *To Robert Browning*, l. 5.

For be sure our hearts would lose
Future years of woe,
If our courage could refuse
The present hour with "No."
ELIZA COOK *Journal*, "*No*," vol. ii, st. 2.

THE INTERJECTION

An Interjection is a word used, independently of all grammatical relation, to express feeling or to awaken attention or interest; as, *ah, alas, hallo, oh!*

The word *interjection* is derived from two Latin words, *inter*, between, and *jacio*, throw. Interjections are so called because they are usually thrown in abruptly between the parts of discourse. They are independent elements, serving rather to arouse attention or to indicate feeling than to express thought.

An interjection may be used: — (1) alone, as when we say, *O! alas!* or (2) in connection with some clause or sentence, to which it forms an introduction or adds emphasis; as, "*Oh*, that I knew where I might find Him!" — *Job* 23: 3.

The most common interjections are those expressing, —
Joy or exultation, — *hey, hurra, huzza.*
Surprise, — *ah, aha, hah.*
A call for attention, — *ha, ho, lo, hallo, hem.*
Aversion or contempt, — *fie, foh, pshaw, pugh, tush.*
Sorrow, grief, or compassion, — *alack, alas, O, woe.*
A wish for silence, — *hist, hush, mum.*
Languor, — *heigh-ho, heigh-ho-hum.*
Laughter, — *ho, ho; ha, ha; he, he.*

O and *oh.* — The former is the sign of wishing, or vocative address, and should always be written as a single capital letter. Thus: "*O* pride of Greece! Ulysses, stay!" — *Odyssey*, B. 12, l. 222; "*O* thou that hearest prayer!" — *Ps.* 65 : 2. The latter, *oh*, expresses sorrow, pain, surprise, hope, or longing, and may begin either with a capital or a small letter, according to its position; as,

Oh, that my head were waters, and mine eyes a fountain of tears! — *Jer.* 9: 1.

(The distinction between *O* and *oh* is not so closely observed, however, as formerly.)

Various parts of speech, as nouns, pronouns, adjectives, verbs, or adverbs, when used as exclamations, to express surprise or sudden emotion or intense feeling of any kind, have the force of interjections; as, *well! hark! shame! good! what!* Such a word should be parsed as a noun, pronoun, adjective, verb, or adverb, *used as* a *preposition.*

To Parse an Interjection —

State that it is an interjection, and as such used independently (definition); tell the class to which it belongs, and its general effect, as used.

EXERCISE 38

Point out and parse all the interjections in the following extracts:

O child! O new-born denizen
Of life's great city! on thy head
The glory of the morn is shed,
Like a celestial benison!
Here at the portal thou dost stand,
And with thy little hand
Thou openest the mysterious gate
Into the future's undiscovered land.

LONGFELLOW *To a Child.*

When I see the chestnut letting
All her lovely blossoms falter down, I think,
"Alas the day!"

JEAN INGELOW *The Warbling of Blackbirds.*

Oh, when I was a tiny boy
My days and nights were full of joy.
My mates were blithe and kind!
No wonder that I sometimes sigh
And dash the teardrop from my eye
To cast a look behind!

HOOD *A Retrospective Review.*

Oh! nature's noblest gift — my gray-goose quill!
Slave of my thoughts, obedient to my will,
Torn from thy parent-bird to form a pen,
That mighty instrument of little men!

BYRON *English Bards and Scotch Reviewers*, l. 7.

Ay me! what perils do environ
The man that meddles with cold iron!

BUTLER *Hudibras*, pt. i, can. iii, l. 1.

O what a glory doth this world put on
For him who, with a fervent heart, goes forth
Under the bright and glorious sky, and looks
On duties well performed, and days well spent!
For him the wind, ay, and the yellow leaves,
Shall have a voice, and give him eloquent teachings.

LONGFELLOW *Autumn*, l. 30.

Oh, for boyhood's time of June,
Crowding years in one brief moon,
When all things I heard or saw,
Me, their master, waited for.

WHITTIER *The Barefoot Boy*, st. 3.

Alas! regardless of their doom,
  The little victims play;
No sense have they of ills to come,
  Nor care beyond to-day.

GRAY *On a Distant Prospect of Eton College*, st. 6

PART II

THE BUILDING OF THE SENTENCE

PART II

THE BUILDING OF THE SENTENCE

The Building of the Sentence is the orderly arrangement of the parts of speech for the expression of thought.

Substitute Term

Syntax. — Syntax is derived from the Greek *syn*, with, together, and *tassō*, arrange, thus signifying orderly array. The word is applied to the drawing up of an army in order of march or battle, and is thus well suited to describe the marshaling of words in sentences. The simpler English title, "The Building of the Sentence," is, however, preferred for the purposes of this book.

SECTION I

THE SENTENCE, DIVISIONS AND DEFINITIONS

A **Sentence** is a group of words so connected as to express a complete thought.

The sentence is composed of two parts, viz.:

1. The Subject;
2. The Predicate.

The Subject is that of which something is said (or affirmed) by the use of a finite verb.*

The Predicate is that which is said (or affirmed) of the subject by the use of a finite verb.*

Remarks

The phrase "by the use of a finite verb" is an important part of the definition, and should be carefully noted and remembered. Many things may be "said" about a subject without forming either a predicate or a sentence. If we say "The man being

* See Part I, p. 120.

good," we understand that goodness is attributed to the man, but we do not have a sentence. So we may say "The man being appointed," "The man having been appointed," or "The man to be appointed;" we understand that the man has, or will have, the appointment; yet neither of these expressions is a *sentence*. But now let us put a finite verb in each of these phrases, and we have a *sentence* in each case instantly: "The man *is* good;" "The man *is appointed;*" "The man *has been appointed;*" "The man *will be appointed.*"

Thus we see that it is the *finite verb* that constitutes the predicate, and is the real key of the sentence, binding it together as the keystone binds the arch. Without the *finite verb* we cannot have a sentence, whatever other words we may have; with a *finite verb*, any other suitable words may be at once combined into a coherent sentence.*

A sentence may consist of but two words, a noun (or pronoun) and an intransitive verb; as, John runs; Time flies; He lives; I go.

In sentences of this simplest form we have but two parts of speech, viz.: a noun (or pronoun) and a verb.

The noun (or pronoun) is the subject, and the verb is the predicate.

These two parts of speech are necessary to the longest and most complicated sentence, viz.: a noun (or some substitute for a noun) and a verb. However many words a sentence may contain, we can always find as its basis a noun (or some word or phrase used like a noun) and a verb. Other parts of speech may be useful, but these are essential.

The Essential Subject. — The noun (or its substitute) which is "essential" as the subject of the verb, so that the sentence could not be constructed without it, is called the *Essential Subject.*

* NOTE. — When we speak of any word in a sentence as "a *verb*" or "the *verb*" without limitation, that is always understood to mean a *finite verb.*

The Essential Predicate. — The verb which is essential for stating something about the subject, so that the sentence could not be constructed without it, is called the *Essential Predicate.*

The verb which forms the essential predicate is often called also *the predicate verb.*

SIMPLE AND COMPOUND SUBJECTS

I. The essential subject may be simple or compound.

(1) **The Simple Essential Subject** is a single noun (or substitute for a noun) used as the subject of the predicate verb. Thus in the sentence, "*John* runs," "John" is the Simple Essential Subject.

In ordinary use it is sufficient to call such a subject the *essential subject;* the essential subject will always be understood to be *simple* unless we mention that it is *compound.*

(2) **The Compound Essential Subject.** — The essential subject may consist of two or more nouns,* united by a conjunction; as, *John and James* sit together. Nouns so united form a *Compound Essential Subject.*

Here we do not have two sentences, for we could not say, "*John* sit together *and James* sit together;" the plural form of the verb "sit" shows that the subject consists of more than one; and the sentence would not be improved by making the verb singular, "John *sits* together and James *sits* together." It is "John *and* James" of whom the action is affirmed.

"John and James" must be treated as the Compound Essential Subject of this sentence.

A great number of nouns may be so connected, forming one Compound Essential Subject *taking a plural verb as the essential predicate,* when *and* is used as the connective (see Rule 4, p. 270).

* NOTE. — *Noun,* as here used, includes any word or phrase used as a noun.

Thus:

> The Goth, the Christian, time, war, flood, and fire
> Have dealt upon the Seven-hilled City's pride.
>
> BYRON *Childe Harold*, can. iv.

Here six nouns unite to form one compound essential subject, taking the plural verb "have dealt" as the essential predicate.

Where several nouns (or pronouns) are thus connected to form a compound subject, the conjunction is commonly omitted before each of the added nouns except the last, its place being supplied by a comma, as in the extract above given.

II. The essential predicate may likewise be either simple or compound.

(1) **The Simple Essential Predicate.** — The essential predicate may consist of a single finite verb agreeing with the essential subject; as, I *came;* You *did* your duty. Such a verb forms a *Simple Essential Predicate.* It is ordinarily sufficient to call such a predicate "the Essential Predicate."

(2) **The Compound Essential Predicate.** — The essential predicate may consist of two or more verbs united by a conjunction or conjunctions, and each in agreement with the same essential subject; as, I *came*, *saw*, and *conquered.* Verbs so united in the predicate form a *Compound Essential Predicate.*

Such a compound predicate might be separated, and a subject supplied for each verb, forming as many sentences as there are verbs; as, "I *came*, (I) *saw*, and (I) *conquered.*" But it is better to treat verbs thus closely combined in the predicate as forming one Compound Essential Predicate, just as nouns or pronouns similarly connected in the subject form one Compound Essential Subject.

Substitute Terms

Subject Noun or Pronoun; Subject Nominative. — When a noun or pronoun forms the essential subject, it is often termed a *subject noun* or *pronoun*, or (since it must be in the nominative case) the *subject nominative.*

Subject Base: Predicate Base. — The Essential Subject is called by some grammarians the *Subject Base,* and the Essential Predicate the *Predicate Base.*

Grammatical Subject: Grammatical Predicate. — The Essential Subject has been called by many grammarians the *Grammatical Subject,* and the Essential Predicate the *Grammatical Predicate.*

Predicate Verb. — A verb forming the essential predicate is called a *predicate verb.*

COMBINATIONS OF SUBJECT AND PREDICATE

The forms above mentioned give four possible combinations, as follows:

1. A simple essential subject with a simple essential predicate; as, John runs;

2. A simple essential subject with a compound essential predicate; as, John runs and slides;

3. A compound essential subject with a simple essential predicate; as, John and James run;

4. A compound essential subject with a compound essential predicate; as, John and James run and slide.

The Complete Subject. — The entire group of words about which something is said is called the *Complete Subject;* as, *The most ancient implements* were made of stone.

The Complete Predicate. — The entire group of words used to say something about the subject is called the *Complete Predicate;* as, The Pyramids *are of great antiquity.*

Substitute Terms

Logical Subject: Logical Predicate. — Grammarians who term the Essential Subject and the Essential Predicate the Grammatical Subject and the Grammatical Predicate, also call the Complete Subject the *Logical Subject* and the Complete Predicate the *Logical Predicate.* There is, however, an objection to bringing into the study of grammar terms derived from the abstruse science of logic, and the simpler terms above given are here preferred.

SUBJECTS AND PREDICATES COMPARED — ESSENTIAL AND COMPLETE

The *essential subject* may be also the *complete subject,* and the *essential predicate* may be also the *complete predicate,* as in the sentence "John runs," where a single noun forms the subject and a single verb the predicate.

Where the subject or the predicate consists of a number of words, the *essential subject* or the *essential predicate* is included within the *complete subject* or *complete predicate* as a part of it.

Thus, in the sentence, "The *man lives* in the city," "man" is the *essential* subject, the article "the" being a modifier of the noun "man;" the *essential subject* and its modifier, taken together, form the *complete subject,* "The man."

In like manner, "lives" is the *essential predicate,* the phrase "in the city" being a modifier of the verb "lives," and, with that verb as the *essential predicate,* forming the *complete predicate,* "lives in the city."

Any phrase thus modifying a verb is called *an adverbial modifier.*

We may add many other words, greatly extending the *complete subject* and the *complete predicate,* and yet keep the *essential subject* and the *essential predicate* still the same. Thus: "The good, wise, noble *man,* honored and beloved by all, *lives* simply and quietly in a small, plain house in the great city."

Here "man" is still the *essential subject* and "lives" the *essential predicate.* Take "man" away, and the verb is without a

subject; take "lives" away, and the subject is without a verb; take both away, and the sentence falls to pieces, and becomes only a mob of words. All the parts of that long sentence are built around those two little words, "man" and "lives;" they are *essential* to the structure of the sentence, one as the *essential subject*, the other as the *essential predicate*.

The correct framing of the sentence depends absolutely on recognizing the *essential subject* and the *essential predicate*, and uniting them in proper agreement.

Thus if we were to change the *essential subject* of the sentence above given from "man" to "men," we should at once have to change the *essential predicate* from "lives" to "live," while not another word in the sentence would need to be changed. The sentence would then read: "The good, wise, noble *men*, honored and beloved by all, *live* simply and quietly in a small, plain house in the great city."

The first and most important thing to do, therefore, in making or explaining a sentence, is to find the *essential subject* and the *essential predicate*, and be sure that they agree; then we can build around them the *complete subject* and the *complete predicate*, however many words these may contain. (See Rule 1, Verb, PART I, p. 125.)

If ever we are in doubt what verb to use in the predicate, the *essential subject* will quickly tell us. Thus:

"A man of many virtues $\left\{\begin{matrix}\text{is}\\ \text{are}\end{matrix}\right\}$ needed."

Here the thought is not so much the need of "many virtues" as of a "man" possessing them; "man" is therefore the *essential subject;* "man" is in the singular number, and its verb must likewise be in the singular number, "is," and not "are."

We see, further, that "virtues" could not be the subject, because it is itself the *object* of the preposition "of," and hence in the objective case.

Take two other examples: "Many men are able to do that work." Here we see at once that the plural noun "men" is the *essential subject*, and we know without question that it must take a plural verb, "are."

Now change the sentence as follows:

"Any one of many men $\left\{\begin{matrix}\text{is}\\ \text{are}\end{matrix}\right\}$ able to do that work."

What is now the essential subject? We are not thinking of "many men" uniting to do the work, but of "one" among the many being able to do it alone. Also we see that "men" cannot be the subject, because it is itself the *object* of the preposition "of." Hence "one" is the *essential subject*, and "one" must take a verb in the singular number, "is," and not "are;" thus we have: "Any *one* of many men *is* able to do that work."

In any sentence whatever, we can find what forms may be properly used by finding the *essential subject* and the *essential predicate*, as above explained.

Remarks

The *essential subject* may not be the most important word in the *complete subject*, but it is *the word* of the subject which is "essential" to the grammatical structure, so that without it we should not have a sentence. In like manner the *essential predicate* may not be the most important word in the *complete predicate*, but it is *the word* of the predicate which is "essential" to the grammatical structure, so that without it, also, we should not have a sentence. Thus: "No *man* among all the heroes of the war *was* more daring and resolute."

The most important word of the *complete subject* of this sentence is "heroes;" but it cannot be the *essential subject*, because it is itself the object of the preposition "among." The *essential subject* is "man," which requires the verb to be in the singular "was." Again, the most important words in the *complete predicate* are "daring" and "resolute;" but those words are not verbs, and cannot make a sentence without a verb. The one *verb*, which agrees with the subject "man," and binds the two parts of the sentence

together, is the verb "was;" that is the *essential predicate*, without which the sentence cannot be made.

It may be said that the words "man was" do not make a very expressive sentence, but they do make a grammatical unity, and *form a grammatical frame*, around which may be fitted the most expressive words we please to use. Starting with those two words, "man was," and adding suitable modifiers to each, we can build the entire sentence. Those two words are thus the *essential subject* and the *essential predicate*. They are the foundation stones of the sentence.

EXERCISE 39

Point out the essential subject and the essential predicate in each of the following sentences, also the complete subject and the complete predicate.

So may a glory from defect arise.
ROBERT BROWNING *Deaf and Dumb.*

Earth, with her thousand voices, praises God.
COLERIDGE *Hymn Before Sunrise in the Vale of Chamouni*, last line.

The child is father of the man.
WORDSWORTH *My Heart Leaps Up.*

He shall have merely justice and his bond.
SHAKESPEARE *Merchant of Venice*, act iv, sc. 1, l. 339.

The wisdom of the wise and the experience of ages may be preserved by quotation. — ISAAC DISRAELI *Curiosities of Literature. Quotation.*

That fellow would vulgarize the day of judgment.
DOUGLAS JERROLD *A Comic Author.*

Men are more satirical from vanity than from malice.
LA ROCHEFOUCAULD *Maxims.* No. 508.

Violets spring in the soft May shower.
BRYANT *The Maiden's Sorrow.*

Justice, sir, is the great interest of man on earth.
DANIEL WEBSTER *On Mr. Justice Story*, 1845.

I know the lands are lit
With all the autumn blaze of goldenrod.
HELEN HUNT JACKSON *Asters and Goldenrod.*

A sound Mind in a sound Body, is a short but full description of a happy State in this World. — LOCKE *Thoughts Concerning Education.*

Gay hope is theirs by fancy fed,
Less pleasing when possest.
GRAY *On a Distant Prospect of Eton College*, st. 5.

Heaven open'd wide
Her ever-during gates, harmonious sound
On golden hinges moving.
MILTON *Paradise Lost*, bk. vii, l. 205.

ELEMENTS OF THE SENTENCE

Any part of a sentence which is capable of being considered by itself as helping to make up the sentence is called an *element* of the sentence. An *element* may be a single word, or a group of words forming a *phrase* or clause. See CLAUSE, p. 232. An element used as a noun is called a *noun-element;* used as an adjective, an *adjective-element;* as an adverb, an *adverb-element*, etc.

Independent Elements. — Certain words or phrases which may be attached to a sentence, and connected with it in thought, without forming part of the grammatical structure, are called *Independent Elements.* Such are the interjections, *oh*, *ah*, etc., and various phrases like "in truth," "to say the truth," etc.; also, nouns used in direct address; as, *Charles!* you are wanted at home.

SECTION II

KINDS OF SENTENCES

Sentences are divided along two different lines:

I. As to the Mode of Expressing Thought

1. **Declarative.** — Affirming that something is or is not a fact or a possibility; as, The sun shines; The earth moves; The sun has not set; We may have rain.

2. **Interrogative.** — Asking whether something is or is not a fact; as, Is this your home? Do you hear me? Is not that reasonable?

3. **Imperative.** — Commanding or forbidding something; as, Listen to me; Open the door; Do not neglect your lessons.

4. **Exclamatory.** — Expressing a thought as an exclamation; as, How brightly the sun shines! What a steep path this is!

The Exclamatory Sentence may be either with or without an interjection; as, Oh, that I knew where I might find Him! What fools these mortals be!

Negative Sentences do not constitute a distinct class, since a sentence of any one of the four classes named may be negative in quality, if it contains a negative adverb, adjective, or the like. We may have a negative-declarative sentence; as, That *is not* true; negative-interrogative; as, Will you *not go?* negative-imperative; as, *Do not open* the door; or, negative-exclamatory; as, *Not speak* to an old friend!

How the Negative Sentence is Formed. — A Negative Sentence may be formed in any one of several ways.

(1) By using a negative noun as the subject; as, *Nothing* was found in the room.

(2) By using a negative pronoun as the subject; as, *None* of the enemy appeared.

(3) By a negative adjective modifying the subject; as, *No* objection was made.

(4) By a negative adverb used as a subject modifier; as, *Not* ten persons were present.*

* See THE ADVERB, Exception, PART I, p. 193.

(5) By a negative noun or pronoun used as the object of a verb, and thus forming part of the complete predicate; as, I found *nothing;* I saw *none* of the boys there.

(6) By a negative adjective modifying a noun in the predicate; as, That boy is *no* student; I see *no* sign of life.

(7) By a negative adverb modifying the verb of the predicate, — the most common method; as, This is *not* the man; The letter was *not* sent; I will *not* go; I *never* promised that.

(8) By a negative adverb modifying an adjective of the predicate; as, I found that method *not* practicable.

The same effect may be produced by using an adjective with a negative prefix, often with increase of force; as, That is *im*possible (instead of "That is *not* possible").

(9) By a negative conjunction, ordinarily one of a pair or series; as, I *neither* said *nor* meant that.

Remarks

Of these various ways the common form with *not* is by no means the strongest. "I want *nothing*" is far more forcible than "I do *not* want anything;" "I have *no* word from him," than "I have *not* any word from him;" "There was *no* sound," than "There was *not* any sound." It is a decided weakness to limit one's negatives to the form with *not*, and betrays ignorance of the rich and powerful resources of our language.

Auxiliaries with Negative and Interrogative Sentences. — Negative and Interrogative sentences agree in one striking characteristic, viz.: the employment of auxiliaries with all tenses of the verb. See Part I, p. 149.

EXERCISE 40

Tell which of the following sentences are declarative, interrogative, imperative, or exclamatory; tell which are also negative:

> Endurance is the crowning quality,
> And patience all the passion of great hearts.
>
> Lowell *Columbus*, l. 237.

Swiftly walk over the western wave,
Spirit of Night!

SHELLEY *To Night.*

The stately Homes of England,
How beautiful they stand!
Amidst their tall ancestral trees,
O'er all the pleasant land.

MRS. HEMANS *Homes of England.*

Read my little fable:
He that runs may read.
Most can raise the flowers now,
For all have got the seed.

TENNYSON *The Flowers.*

There is no knowledge that is not power.

EMERSON *Society and Solitude. Old Age.*

Who, for the poor renown of being smart,
Would leave a sting within a brother's heart?

YOUNG *Love of Fame,* satire ii, l. 113.

O'er the glad waters of the dark blue sea,
Our thoughts as boundless, and our souls as free,
Far as the breeze can bear, the billows foam,
Survey our empire, and behold our home!

BYRON *The Corsair,* can. i, st. 1.

Take thou thy arms and come with me,
For we must quit ourselves like men, and strive
To aid our cause, although we be but two.

HOMER *Iliad,* bk. xiii, l. 289.

But who can paint
Like Nature? Can imagination boast,
Amid its gay creation, hues like hers?
Or can it mix them with that matchless skill,
And lose them in each other, as appears
In every bud that blows?

THOMSON *The Seasons, Spring,* l. 465.

O hemlock-tree! O hemlock-tree! how faithful are thy branches!
Green not alone in summer time,
But in the winter's frost and rime!
O hemlock-tree! O hemlock-tree! how faithful are thy branches!
LONGFELLOW *The Hemlock-Tree.*

He blew no trumpet in the market-place,
Nor in the church with hypocritic face
Supplied with cant the lack of Christian grace;
Loathing pretence, he did with cheerful will
What others talked of while their hands were still.
WHITTIER *Daniel Neall,* ii.

II. As to the Structure of the Sentence

Sentences are classified as to their structure as Simple, Principal (or Independent), Subordinate (or Dependent), Complex, or Compound.

1. **The Simple Sentence.** — A Simple Sentence contains but one essential subject* and one essential predicate,* with any associated words; as, Life is short; Flowers bloom in the spring; A good man is at peace with himself and the world.

2. **A Principal Sentence** is a sentence so constructed that it is grammatically complete † by itself; as, The river flows swiftly.

* NOTE. — A compound essential subject is considered as *one* subject, and a compound essential predicate as *one* predicate, so far as sentence construction is concerned.

† NOTE. — A sentence may be *grammatically* complete, even though something is wanting to the full expression of the thought. Thus the statement in the sentence above given, "The river flows swiftly," is grammatically complete, but it may not be true in fact at all seasons of the year; it may need to be limited by some added statement; as, "The river flows swiftly *when it is fed by melting snows.*" But the sentence "The river flows swiftly" is *grammatically complete* without the added clause.

3. **A Subordinate Sentence** is a simple sentence so constructed that it is not grammatically complete by itself; as, I acted promptly *when I received your letter.*

"When I received your letter" is a simple sentence containing subject and predicate; but it is not complete by itself, for the conjunctive adverb "when" shows that this sentence *depends* on some other. If a person were to say, "When I received your letter," and stop there, we should at once ask, "What then?" Something is needed to complete the sense. Hence, "When I received your letter" is a *subordinate sentence*, because it must be joined to some principal sentence in order to make a complete statement.

In the sentence given under 2 above, "The river flows swiftly when it is fed by melting snows," the *principal sentence* is "The river flows swiftly," and the *subordinate sentence* is "when it is fed by melting snows." Similarly analyze the following sentence:

> Thieves for their robbery have authority
> When judges steal themselves.
> SHAKESPEARE *Measure for Measure*, act ii, sc. 2, l. 176.

SUBSTITUTE TERMS

Independent and Dependent Sentences. — A sentence which *depends* upon some other is often called a *dependent sentence*, while a sentence which does not *depend* upon any other is called an *independent sentence*. These are excellent terms, which may be freely used, and will often be found very useful.

4. **A Complex Sentence** consists of a principal sentence with one or more subordinate sentences; as, I will pay the money, because my friend incurred the debt. Here, "I will pay the money" is the principal sentence, "because my friend incurred the debt" is the subordinate sentence, and both together form a *complex sentence.*

5. **A Compound Sentence** consists of two or more sentences so connected that neither is dependent upon the other; as, The sun has risen *and* the birds are singing. Here we might omit the conjunction, and have

two simple sentences, each complete and independent; "The sun has risen;" "The birds are singing;" but a fuller unity of thought is secured by combining the two simple sentences by means of the conjunction "and" into one *compound sentence.*

The Clause. — Any one of the simple sentences which are connected to form a complex sentence or a compound sentence is called a *clause.* That is:

A *Clause* is a simple sentence combined with some other sentence so as to form a complex or a compound sentence.

In a complex sentence, the principal sentence is called the *principal clause,* and any subordinate sentence is called a *subordinate clause.*

REMARKS

In a compound sentence composed of two or more simple sentences, each of the clauses so connected is a *principal clause,* because neither is dependent upon the other.

A simple sentence standing alone is never called a *clause.* "The sun has risen" is a simple sentence; if combined with another sentence, as when we say, "The sun has risen *and* the birds are singing," the simple sentence "The sun has risen" becomes a *clause* of the compound sentence in such combination.

It must never be forgotten that every *clause* is a *simple sentence,* either principal or subordinate.

The Phrase. — A group of two or more associated words *not containing a subject and predicate* is called a *Phrase.* Such expressions as "seeing the danger," "in order to escape," "in the hope of success," and numerous others, are *phrases* because not containing in either case a subject and predicate.

In the sentence, "The sun has risen and the birds are singing," the *clause* "The sun has risen" may be changed into a *phrase* by

putting a participle in place of the finite verb, and making it read, "The sun *having risen*," because we no longer have a predicate; "The sun having risen" is not a sentence, and therefore not a *clause*, but a *phrase*.

A *phrase* often consists of but two or three associated words; as, "in truth," "according to," "as well as," and numerous other combinations.

Members. — The clauses which are united to form a complex or compound sentence are called the *members* of such sentence.

Analysis. — The separation of a sentence into parts, and the bringing out of their definite relations to each other and to the whole sentence, is called *analysis*.

To subdivide a sentence into clauses, phrases, or elements is to *analyze* the sentence.

Synthesis. — Synthesis is the opposite of analysis, viz.: the putting together of words, phrases, or clauses, so as to form a grammatical unity.

Analysis enables us to explain a sentence already formed; *synthesis* enables us to form a sentence out of elements given or thought of.

Construction. — To *construct* is to build or shape out of materials given. *Construction* in grammar may be either the process of building a phrase, clause, or sentence, or it may be that which is so built; a group of combined words may be a correct or an incorrect *construction*.

Connectives. — Words that connect words, phrases, or clauses are called *connectives*.

The chief *connectives* are:

1. Conjunctions, connecting words, phrases, or clauses; as, *as*, *and*, *but*, *if*, *or*, etc.

2. Prepositions, connecting words; as, *at*, *by*, *in*, *to*, etc.

3. Relative pronouns, connecting clauses or phrases, viz.: *who*, *which*, *what*, and *that*.

4. Conjunctive or relative adverbs, connecting clauses or phrases; as, *hence*, *when*, *whence*, *where*, *why*, etc.

EXERCISE 41

Find and analyze the simple sentences in Exercises 39 (p. 225) and 40 (p. 228).

SECTION III

THE SIMPLE SENTENCE

The **Simple Sentence** — that is, the sentence containing but one subject and one predicate — is the basis of all sentence construction. When we understand all about the simple sentence, we can explain or construct any sentence.

The following definitions should be carefully noted:

Adjunct. — An Adjunct is that which is joined to and connected subordinately with something else; thus, a set of doorsteps is an *adjunct* to a house.

Modifier. — A Modifier is that which is added to something else so as to affect or change it. The modifier of a word or phrase affects or changes the meaning of that word or phrase in that connection. Thus, the adverb *not* is a *modifier*, completely reversing the meaning of the word or phrase to which it is added, so that, for instance, the sentence "I am busy" comes to state the contrary, "I am *not* busy."

Every modifier is an adjunct, but not every adjunct is a modifier; thus *to* is an adjunct of the verb in the infinitive, but it is not a modifier.

Definition. — A simple sentence consists of an essential subject and an essential predicate, with any modifiers or adjuncts of either.

A simple sentence must contain:

I. An essential subject;
II. An essential predicate.

These two together may make up the sentence; as, "Time flies."

To these may be added:

1. Any modifier or modifiers of the subject;
2. Any modifier or modifiers of the predicate;
3. A connective or connectives;
4. Any independent element or elements.

SECTION IV

THE SUBJECT

The Essential Subject may be:

(1) A **noun**; as, *Rain* is falling; (2) A **pronoun**; as, *He* is here; (3) An **adjective** used as a noun; as, The *good* are the happy; (4) An **infinitive** used as a noun; as, *To work* is the way to win; (5) A **participle** used as a noun; as, *Working* strengthens the worker; (6) A **phrase** * used as a noun; as, *To be first in his class* was his ambition; (7) **Any part of speech used simply as a name**; as, *A* is the first letter of the alphabet; *Not* is an adverb; *If* often brings failure; *Oh* should not be too often used for emphasis.

* NOTE. — A *clause* may also be used as a noun forming the subject of a sentence, but such a construction is not a *simple*, but a *complex* sentence; as, "*That he might win the game* was his only thought."

Adjuncts of the Essential Subject. — It will be seen in the study of the following pages that any part of speech except the interjection and the finite verb may be used as an adjunct or modifier of the essential subject.

We will now consider the various parts of speech as used in the Subject of the Simple Sentence.

I. THE NOUN

A noun in either of the three cases may form part of the complete subject of a simple sentence.

A.—THE NOMINATIVE CASE

1. **The Essential Subject.** — The chief use of a noun in the subject of a sentence is as itself constituting the essential subject; as, A *time* of need has come.

RULE 1. — A noun which is the essential subject of a sentence is in the nominative case. (Compare Rule 1, p. 44.)

The Compound Essential Subject. — When two or more nouns joined by a conjunction or conjunctions unitedly constitute the essential subject, called a Compound Essential Subject (p. 219), each one of the nouns forming that compound essential subject is in the nominative case; as, *Time* and *tide* wait for no man; The *president* or the *secretary* must sign the order.

For the construction of the compound essential subject, as formed by various conjunctions, see CONJUNCTION, p. 270.

In parsing any one of such a group of nouns, it may be said that it is in the nominative case, and is part of the compound essential subject of the sentence, or of the predicate verb.

CAUTION 1. — Such a compound subject does not make the sentence containing it compound or complex; the sentence is still a simple sentence, though with a compound essential subject.

CAUTION 2. — Such a compound subject must be carefully distinguished from a group of nouns connected by a preposition or prepositions, a group of the latter kind not being a compound subject (see THE PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE, 2, p. 265). Thus:

"The man *and* his son were present;"
"The man *with* his son was present."

2. **An Appositive of the Essential Subject.** — Since the essential subject is always in the nominative case, any noun in apposition with the essential subject is also in the nominative case; as, Washington, the *general*, was present.

REMARKS

1. To this head are to be referred all prefixes, as personal names and titles of office or honor; as, *George* Washington; *General* Washington; *Lord* Bacon.

2. A noun in apposition with the subject is not an added subject, but a modifier, modifying the subject very much as an adjective might do. A simple subject does not become compound when an appositive is added, but remains the single subject of the verb.

3. A number of appositives may be added to a single subject; as, *George* Washington, the *citizen*, *soldier*, *statesman*, and *patriot*, was present. In all such cases the leading noun is the essential subject, and the verb is singular or plural according as the essential subject is singular or plural, without reference to the appositives; as, The *boy*, a stout fellow, *was* at the gate; The *pupils*, active boys, *were* eager for play; The *men*, a great crowd, *were gathered* in the square.

4. The effect of apposition is often given by a prepositional phrase with *of;* as, The city *of* London; also, by a conjunctive phrase with *as* or *or;* as, The lawyer, *as* confidential adviser, learned the facts; The puma, *or* American lion, is found in South America.

For the *Nominative after Infinitive or Participle*, see PREDICATE, p. 278.

B. — THE POSSESSIVE CASE

3. **A Possessive Modifying the Essential Subject.** — A noun in the possessive case cannot be the subject of a verb, and hence cannot be the essential subject of a sentence; but such a noun may be a modifier of the essential subject, and so be a part of the complete subject; as, The *child's* hands were cold. Here the noun "hands" is the essential subject; this subject is plural, and so takes a plural verb, "were;" "child's" is a noun in the possessive case, modifying the essential subject, "hands;" "The child's hands" is the complete subject of the sentence.

It will be seen from the example above that a singular possessive may modify a plural essential subject. A plural possessive may also modify a singular essential subject; as, The *men's* gymnasium was open. Here the noun "gymnasium" is the essential subject; this subject is singular, and hence takes a singular verb, "was;" the noun "men's" is a plural possessive modifying the essential subject, "gymnasium;" "The men's gymnasium" is the complete subject.

Thus a singular possessive may modify a plural essential subject, which still remains plural; or a plural possessive may modify a singular essential subject, which still remains singular; or the possessive and the essential subject may be both singular or both plural; as, The *boy's* book was lost; The *children's* games were over.

CAUTION.—The number of the possessive does not in the least matter to the construction of the sentence; the number of the verb is determined wholly by the number of the essential subject without reference to the possessive.

4. **A Possessive Modifying an Adjunct of the Essential Subject.** — Thus; Having the *king's* favor, the courtier oppressed the people.

Here "favor" is the object of the participle "having" which modifies "courtier," the essential subject; that is, "favor" is an adjunct of the essential subject, and is itself modified by the possessive "king's."

For the *Possessive with the Participle*, see PRONOUN, p. 246.

C. — THE OBJECTIVE CASE

5. **The Object in a Prepositional Phrase.** — A noun which is the object of a preposition cannot be the subject of a verb, and hence cannot be the essential subject of a sentence. But such a noun may be part of a prepositional phrase modifying the essential subject, and so be part of the complete subject; as, The lady *at the desk* is the teacher.

Here "lady" is the essential subject; "desk" is the object of the preposition "at," helping to make up the prepositional phrase "at the desk;" the prepositional phrase "at the desk" modifies the essential subject "lady," just as an adjective might do; "The lady at the desk" is the complete subject. See THE PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE, p. 265.

6. **The Subject or Object of an Infinitive or Object of a Participle.** — An Infinitive modifying the essential subject may take as its subject or object a noun, or a Participle so used may take as its object a noun; as, The time to gain *education* is in our youth; The teacher, seeing the *difficulty*, changed the question.

Here "education" is the object of the infinitive "to gain," and thus is in the objective case, and cannot, therefore, be the subject of the verb "is;" but the infinitive phrase "to gain education" modifies the essential subject "time," and hence the noun "education" which is part of that infinitive phrase, is also part of the complete subject, "The time to gain education." See THE INFINITIVE PHRASE, pp. 256–257.

Similarly, the noun "difficulty" is the object of the participle "seeing," and thus is in the objective case, and cannot be the subject of the verb "changed;" but the participial phrase "seeing the difficulty" modifies the essential subject "teacher," and hence the noun "difficulty," which is part of that participial phrase, is also part of the complete subject, "The teacher, seeing the difficulty." See THE PARTICIPIAL PHRASE, p. 259.

Thus a noun in either one of the three cases may be found in the complete subject of a sentence. Retaining the numbers already used, we have,

A. — **The Nominative Case,** as:

1. The essential subject;
2. An appositive of the essential subject;

B. — **The Possessive Case,** as:

3. A possessive modifying the essential subject;
4. A possessive included in some modifier of the essential subject;

C. — **The Objective Case,** as:

5. The object in a prepositional phrase;
6. The subject or object in an infinitive or participial phrase.

When various nouns are in the complete subject of a simple sentence, to find the essential subject, we may at once rule out numbers 3, 4, 5, and 6. Neither a possessive nor an objective can be the essential subject. The possessive case is known by its form,* and may be at once set aside. In the same way the subject or object of an infinitive or the object of a preposition or of a participle may be set aside, as in the objective case, and not possibly the essential subject of the sentence.

* NOTE. — When two or more possessives are connected, and the sign of the possessive is added only to the last, the connection will show that the connected nouns are in the same case; as, "Liddell and Scott's Lexicon." (See p. 42.)

We then have left only numbers 1 and 2, and between these there will rarely be any confusion. The essential subject is usually known at once from the appositive by its prominence as the chief thing spoken of. Usually, too, the essential subject comes before the appositive, which is added to explain or emphasize it.*

If a case ever arises where it is difficult to tell which is the essential subject and which the appositive, it will be found that it does not greatly matter; both are nominatives, and we may treat either as the essential subject according to our view of the connection of thought. Such cases are very rare. Commonly a moment's thought will tell which is the leading noun, and which is added as an appositive to emphasize or explain it.

The same rules will hold in the case of a compound essential subject, or of a number of appositives joined to the same subject.

The Independent Nominative. — A noun may be in the nominative case without forming part either of the subject or of the predicate of a sentence. This occurs:

1. In direct address; as, John, close the door.

2. In exclamation:

> The Niobe of nations! there she stands,
> Childless and crownless, in her voiceless woe.
>
> BYRON *Childe Harold*, can. iv, st. 79.

3. In the absolute use with a participle; as, The *man appearing* at the gate, the porter opened it at once.

* NOTE. — Sometimes, in what is called inverted construction, the appositive precedes the essential subject; as,

> Child of the sun, refulgent summer comes.

But here probably no one would take "child of the sun — comes" to be the essential subject and predicate; it is at once seen that the thought is "summer comes," and that the phrase "child of the sun" is added as descriptive of "summer;" "summer" being thus the essential subject.

Here we have but one predicate verb, "opened," of which "porter" is the essential subject; "man" cannot, therefore, be the subject of the verb "opened," and there is no other verb of which it can be the subject. Hence it is said to be the *nominative absolute.*

For the *Nominative Absolute,* see PREDICATE, p. 298.

EXERCISE 42

Select all nouns forming part of the *complete subject* in each of the following extracts, and explain the use of each.

(In each case give the *essential subject.*)

> Affliction's sons are brothers in distress;
> A brother to relieve, how exquisite the bliss!
>
> BURNS *A Winter Night.*

Most people would succeed in small things if they were not troubled with great ambitions. — LONGFELLOW *Driftwood. Table-Talk.*

> The helmèd Cherubim,
> And sworded Seraphim,
> Are seen in glittering ranks with wings display'd.
>
> MILTON *Hymn on the Nativity,* l. 112.

> Never anger made good guard for itself.
>
> SHAKESPEARE *Antony and Cleopatra,* act iv, sc. 1.

> At length the morn and cold indifference came.
>
> NICHOLAS ROWE *The Fair Penitent.*

> Auspicious Hope! in thy sweet garden grow
> Wreaths for each toil, a charm for every woe.
>
> CAMPBELL *Pleasures of Hope,* pt. i, l. 45.

> As hope and fear alternate chase
> Our course through life's uncertain race.
>
> SCOTT *Rokeby,* can. vi, st. 2.

The true greatness of nations is in those qualities which constitute the greatness of the individual. — CHARLES SUMNER *Oration on the True Grandeur of Nations.*

Each substance of a grief hath twenty shadows.
SHAKESPEARE *Richard II*, act ii, sc. 2, l. 14.

A wild boar, a devourer of Tuscan acorns, and heavy with the fruit of many an oak, second in fame only to the monster of Ætolia, lies an envied prey for my kitchen fire. — MARTIAL *Epigrams*, bk. vii, ep. 27.

Close by a rock, of less enormous height,
Breaks the wild waves, and forms a dangerous strait.
HOMER *Odyssey*, bk. xii, l. 125. Pope's trans.

A chaste and lucid style is indicative of the same personal traits in the author. — HOSEA BALLOU *MS. Sermons*.

Born for success, he seemed
With grace to win, with heart to hold,
With shining gifts that took all eyes.
EMERSON *In Memoriam E. B. E.*, l. 60.

And Hope enchanted smiled, and waved her golden hair.
COLLINS *Ode on the Passions*, l. 3.

II. THE PRONOUN

The use of the Pronoun in the subject of a simple sentence is practically the same as that of the noun.

A. — THE NOMINATIVE CASE

1. **The Essential Subject.** — A pronoun may be the essential subject; as, *He* is attentive; *They* are absent. Two or more pronouns may be united in a compound essential subject; as, *You* and *I* will go; *This*, *that*, or the *other* will interrupt. A pronoun may be joined with a noun to form a compound essential subject; as, *George* and *I* will go; *He* and his *lawyer* contrived the plan. Two or more nouns or two or more pronouns may be similarly used.

REMARKS

When the personal pronoun *I* is joined with one or more other pronouns, or with one or more nouns, to form a compound essential subject, the pronoun *I* is always placed last in the series.

This is contrary to the usage of some other languages, as the Latin, which is illustrated by the well-known anecdote of the offense that Cardinal Wolsey gave to Henry VIII, by saying "*Ego et rex*," which was good Latin, but literally translated would mean "I and the king."

RULE 2. — A pronoun used as the essential subject must be in the nominative case.* This case is indicated by the form of the pronoun in the personal pronouns and the interrogative or relative *who*.

Hence, to say "You and *him* may go" is a complete error, while "*Me* and you will go" violates two rules of grammar at once; the "Me" is wrong both by case and position; the expression should be "You and *I*."

The Pronoun Not an Appositive. — The pronoun is rarely if ever used in modern English as the appositive of a noun or of another pronoun, but may take a noun in apposition with itself; as, *I*, John Robinson, hereby promise and agree, etc.; *We*, the people of the United States; *He*, the mayor, now appeared.

In each of these cases, it will be seen that the noun is explanatory of the pronoun; "John Robinson" explains who is meant by the pronoun "I," which might stand alone as the essential subject; "the people" explains who are the "we" (who "ordain and establish this Constitution"); "the mayor" tells the official position of the person referred to as "he."

For the *Nominative Absolute*, see PREDICATE, p. 302.

B. — THE POSSESSIVE CASE

2. **A Possessive Modifying the Essential Subject;** as, *My* book is on the table; *His* note is now due. This case is exactly like that of a noun in the possessive modifying the essential subject.

* NOTE. — For a single exception, see POSSESSIVE CASE, 3, p. 245.

3. **A Possessive Pronoun Used as the Essential Subject;** as, *Yours* of the eighteenth is just received. Here we cannot supply a noun without changing the form of the possessive; we should have to write "*Your* letter," etc.; if we use "Yours," we must use it *without a noun*, and as itself the essential subject of this sentence.

This peculiar English idiom is due to the peculiarity of the possessives of certain personal pronouns. *I*, *we*, *thou*, *you*, *she*, and *they* have each a double possessive *my* or *mine*, *our* or *ours*, *thy* or *thine*, *your* or *yours*, *her* or *hers*, *their* or *theirs*.

The second possessive of each of these pairs — namely, *mine*, *ours*, *thine*, *yours*, *hers*, and *theirs* — can only be used *without a noun*, but referring to some noun or nouns previously mentioned or mutually understood by the speaker or writer and the person addressed; as, This book is *mine;* where is *yours?* Often the noun required has been given in a preceding question; as, Question: Where is my *coat?* Answer: *Yours* has not been found.

Such a possessive is *used like a noun* in the nominative or objective case, yet retaining its possessive meaning; it may thus be the essential subject of a sentence.

Such a possessive may be used without change of form as a plural, taking a plural verb; as, Your *letters* may be mailed; *mine* (my *letters*) are not yet written.

Such a possessive, though used like a noun, differs from a noun in that it does not take an article or other adjective.

The possessives of *he* and *it* — *his* and *its* — are single, and a noun could always be supplied with them, but when used separately they are generally treated as following the analogy of the separate forms *mine*, *ours*, etc.

4. **A Possessive as Modifier of Any Adjunct.** — A Possessive may be used as a modifier of any adjunct of the essential subject, and thus be included in the complete subject; as, The way to learn *your* lessons is to study; Trusting *his* honesty, I went with him.

The Possessive with the Participle. — A participle used as a noun (see pp. 170–171) frequently requires a possessive (noun or pronoun) as a modifier; as, *His* (My *friend's*) coming was a surprise; I anticipated *his* (my *friend's*) coming with pleasure.

In the first sentence, evidently, it was not "*he*" or "my *friend*" that "was a surprise," but the "*coming*" of the person referred to; hence the possessive is required, — "*His* coming," "my *friend's* coming." In the second sentence the meaning is not "I anticipated *him*" or "anticipated *my friend*," but "I anticipated the *coming*" of the person referred to; hence the possessive is here also required.

But mistakes in such constructions are very common. Many persons will say "On account of *him* coming unexpectedly, I acted at once;" "On the *employer* entering suddenly, he put away the papers." But the meaning is not "On account of *him*" or "On the *employer*," but "On account of the *coming*," "On the *entering*" of the one referred to. Hence the phrases should be "On account of *his* coming unexpectedly," "On the *employer's* entering suddenly."

C. — THE OBJECTIVE CASE

5. A pronoun in the objective case may be used as part of a prepositional or other phrase that modifies the essential subject, and so be part of the complete subject; as, Doubt about *this* gave place to certainty; The attempt to relieve *him* failed; Trusting *me* to lead, they advanced. The explanation of such phrases is the same as that of the corresponding case of the NOUN, p. 239.

Thus a pronoun in any one of the three cases may be part of the complete subject of a simple sentence, either as being itself the essential subject, or as forming an adjunct or part of a phrase-adjunct of that subject.

***It* as an Introductory Subject.** — The pronoun *it* is often used merely as introductory; as, "*It* rains;" "*It*

is cold." Here "it" does not represent any definite person or thing, either expressed or understood. Hence "it" in such use has been called by grammarians an "impersonal subject," and the verb with such a subject is called an "impersonal verb." The name is not quite a happy one, since both the subject and the verb, in all such expressions, are grammatically in the *third person.* Yet these names are established by long and general use.

In fact, "it," in such expressions, is an introductory subject, used to give *sentence form* to the idea expressed by the verb. "It" is the essential subject (or, if the expression is preferred, the "grammatical" subject) of the verb. "It" fills out the grammatical frame, giving the thought that "rain is falling" the briefest possible sentence form. "*It* rains" is grammatically a true sentence, with subject and predicate. "Rains" would not be a sentence; hence, the mind is better satisfied to employ the introductory subject "it," in order to express the thought in sentence form.

The introductory *it* is used for: (*a*) Determination of times, seasons, distances, etc.; as, *It* dawns; *It* grows late; *It* is toward evening; *It* was April; (by inversion) How far is *it* to New York? (*b*) The introduction of a narrative; as, *It* happened (in the older style, *It* came to pass, *It* befell); (*c*) The expression of probability; as, *It* seems to me; *It* appeared likely (probable, etc.); (*d*) Indefinite reference; as, *It* is vain; *It* does not matter; (*e*) The denoting of general conditions, as of health, weather, etc.; as, *It* is cold; *It* is cloudy; How is *it* with you now?

> Ill fared *it* then with Roderick Dhu
> That on the field his targe he threw.
>
> SCOTT *Lady of the Lake*, can. v, st. 15.

It, as an introductory subject, may refer to a following phrase or clause, as, *It* is evident *that a mistake was made; It* is necessary *to study the lesson.*

By inverting these sentences, we may dispense with "it," and yet express the same thought; *That a mistake was made* is evident; *To study the lesson* is necessary.

There is here, however, a loss of emphasis. The end of the sentence is the emphatic place, and "evident" and "necessary" are not the emphatic words. The introductory subject "it" is an ingenious device to carry over the really important subject of thought to the emphatic place at the end of the sentence; thus "that a mistake has been made," or "to study the lesson," becomes the final and impressive thought.

Grammatically "it" is the essential (or "grammatical") subject of the sentence, filling out the grammatical frame, and holding the mind in expectancy for the important equivalent that is to come in the predicate.

The Plural Following Introductory *It*. — *It* as an introductory subject may represent a noun or pronoun of any gender or person, or of either number; as, *It* was *Milton* who wrote Paradise Lost; *It* is the *Scriptures* that teach us our duty; *It* was government *bonds* that I purchased; *It* has been *years* since I met him; *It* was *centuries* ago that this happened; *It* is *these* that I want; *It* was *they* who told me.

Remarks

Such forms, which have sometimes been censured, are well established in English usage. In many of these expressions the explanation often given, that *it* is "an expletive," and that the predicate nominative is the real subject, becomes evidently impossible. The "expletive" treatment is inadequate, as not covering the actual usage. We cannot say "The Scriptures *is*," "bonds *was*," "years *has been*," or "centuries *was*." *It* is in such cases the essential subject, — and the only possible subject. Accordingly *it* should be so treated in all similar uses, even when inversion of the sentence is possible. The introductory *it* is (grammatically) the essential subject, having meaning, not by itself, but by what it waits for. Meaningless itself, *it* makes the mind expectant for the words to come that will fill out the meaning which *it* represents in blank.

EXERCISE 43

Select all pronouns forming part of the *complete subject* in each of the following extracts, and explain how each is related to the essential subject and to the predicate verb.

(In each case give the *essential subject.*)

She in beauty, education, blood,
Holds hand with any princess of the world.
SHAKESPEARE *King John*, act ii, sc. 1, l. 493.

And what they dare to dream of, dare to do.
LOWELL *Ode Recited at the Harvard Commemoration*, July 21, 1865, st. 3.

This sacred shade and solitude, what is it?
'Tis the felt presence of the Deity.
Few are the faults we flatter when alone.
YOUNG *Night Thoughts*, Night V, l. 172.

For it is not meters, but a meter-making argument that makes a poem. — EMERSON *Essays. The Poet.*

Who would in such a gloomy state remain
Longer than Nature craves?
THOMSON *Seasons, Summer*, l. 71.

It is a poor sport that is not worth the candle. — HERBERT *Jacula Prudentum.*

Through the sunset of hope,
Like the shapes of a dream,
What paradise islands of glory gleam!
SHELLEY *Hellas*, Semi-chorus I.

But now 'tis little joy
To know I'm further off from heaven
Than when I was a boy.
HOOD *I Remember, I Remember.*

I am a part of all that I have met.
TENNYSON *Ulysses*, l. 18.

On the light of Liberty you saw arise the light of Peace. — DANIEL WEBSTER *Speeches. The Bunker Hill Monument.* 1825.

It is always good
When a man has two irons in the fire.
BEAUMONT AND FLETCHER *The Faithful Friends*, act i, sc. 2.

We live by Admiration, Hope, and Love.
WORDSWORTH *The Excursion*, bk. iv.

On the stage he was natural, simple, affecting,
'Twas only that when he was off, he was acting.
GOLDSMITH *Retaliation*, l. 101.

Rocked in the cradle of the deep,
I lay me down in peace to sleep.
EMMA WILLARD *The Cradle of the Deep*.

It does not need that a poem should be long. Every word was once a poem. — EMERSON *Essays. The Poet.*

There are some remedies worse than the disease. — PUBLIUS SYRUS *Maxims*, 301.

The poet in his art
Must imitate the whole, and say the smallest part.
W. W. STORY *The Unexpressed.*

III. THE ADJECTIVE

The English Adjective is very simple; it has neither gender, person, number, nor case. We have only to know the common form of the adjective and then apply that to any noun in any situation.

The Adjective as used in the subject of a sentence may be:

1. **The Essential Subject.** — This occurs when the adjective, preceded by the definite article, is used as a noun; as, The *best* is the cheapest; The *good* are the happy.

Any adjective may at any time, with the article prefixed, be used as a noun. It is, however, preferable to parse such an adjective, not as a noun, but as *an adjective used as a noun*, for an adjective so used may still take an adverb; as, The *very best* is the cheapest.

In many cases a word that is an adjective in form has also distinct use as a noun; as, The *right* is of supreme importance, where "right" is properly classed as a noun of the singular number and nominative case; as a noun, *right* may be used in the plural (as an adjective never is), and we speak of the "*rights* of man." *Good*, also, is definitely established as a noun in certain uses, as when we speak of "the public *good;*" the plural *goods* being used of personal property.

CAUTION. — *The* before an adjective in the comparative degree is not always the definite article, and may not cause the adjective to be used as a noun; as, "*The* wiser he is, *the* stronger he will be." Here "wiser" and "stronger" are distinctly used as adjectives, modifying in each case the pronoun "he." *The*, so used, is an *adverb*. (See ADVERB, p. 262.)

2. **A Modifier of the Essential Subject.** — This is the most common use of the adjective; as, A *busy* day awaited us; A *harder* task remained; The *best* news came at last.

3. **A Modifier of Any Adjunct of the Essential Subject.** — An adjective may modify an appositive of the essential subject or any noun used in a participial, prepositional, or other phrase that forms part of the complete subject; as, Grant, the *great* soldier, was a lover of peace; To make an *early* start was our plan; The orator, telling a *funny* story, put his audience in good humor.

REMARKS

1. When two or more adjectives connected by *and*, *or*, or *nor* modify the same noun or pronoun, the shortest and simplest should be placed first; as, A *novel* and *exceedingly dangerous* proposition; a *feeble* and *incomprehensible* statement.

2. Two adjectives may be joined to one noun or pronoun without a conjunction expressed or understood when one adjective modifies the complex idea expressed by the other adjective with

its noun; as, "A *poor old* man" (that is, an *old man* who is *poor*); "A *spirited white* horse" (that is, a *white horse* that is *spirited*).

When adjectives are so used, the one next the noun must be such as the former may properly qualify. We should not say "The *two first* pages," because there can be but one "first" page; but "The *first two* pages," because the pages may be thought of as in pairs or sets, giving a "*first two*," a "*second two*," etc.; so, "The *next three* houses;" "the *last ten* lessons."

EXERCISE 44

Select all adjectives forming part of the *complete subject* in each of the following extracts, and explain the use of every such adjective.

(In each case give the *essential subject.*)

Yet soon fair spring shall give another scene,
And yellow cowslips gild the level green.
ANNE E. BLEECKER *Return to Tomhanick.*

The royal kingcup bold
Dares not don his coat of gold.
EDWIN ARNOLD *Almond Blossoms.*

The hallowed lilies of the field
In glory are arrayed,
And timid, blue-eyed violets yield
Their fragrance to the shade.
E. C. KINNEY *The Spirit of Song*, st. 4.

Of all the bonny buds that blow
In bright or cloudy weather,
Of all the flowers that come and go
The whole twelve moons together,
The little purple pansy brings
Thoughts of the sweetest, saddest things.
MARY E. BRADLEY *Heart's Ease.*

The most delightful pleasures cloy without variety. — PUBLIUS SYRUS.

All, all look up with reverential awe,
At crimes that 'scape, or triumph o'er the law.
POPE *Epilogue to Satire*, dialogue I, l. 167.

The broken soldier, kindly bade to stay,
Sat by his fire, and talked the night away,
Wept o'er his wounds, or, tales of sorrow done,
Shoulder'd his crutch, and show'd how fields were won.
GOLDSMITH *The Deserted Village*, l. 155.

Careless their merits or their faults to scan,
His pity gave ere charity began.
GOLDSMITH *The Deserted Village*, l. 161.

The awful shadow of some unseen Power
Floats, tho' unseen, amongst us.
SHELLEY *Hymn to Intellectual Beauty.*

The rich and the poor meet together: the Lord is the maker of them all. — *Prov.* 22: 2.

And may you better reck the rede,
Than ever did th' adviser.
BURNS *Epistle to a Young Friend.*

One of the best methods of rendering study agreeable is to live with able men, and to suffer all those pangs of inferiority which the want of knowledge always inflicts. — SYDNEY SMITH *Second Lecture on the Conduct of the Understanding.*

The noble Brutus
Hath told you Cæsar was ambitious.
SHAKESPEARE *Julius Cæsar*, act iii, sc. 2, l. 75.

A man deep-wounded may feel too much pain
To feel much anger.
GEORGE ELIOT *Spanish Gypsy*, bk. i.

Senseless, and deformed,
Convulsive anger storms at large.
THOMSON *The Seasons. Spring.*

In his days shall the righteous flourish. — *Ps.* 72: 7.

The tall oak, towering to the skies,
The fury of the wind defies,
From age to age, in virtue strong.
Inured to stand, and suffer wrong.
MONTGOMERY *The Oak.*

When greater perils men environ,
Then women show a front of iron;
And, gentle in their manner, they
Do bold things in a quiet way.
THOMAS DUNN ENGLISH *Betty Zane.*

IV. THE VERB

A finite verb cannot be part of the subject of a simple sentence in ordinary use. We may say, for instance, "The man who *is* at the gate may enter." Here "The man who *is* at the gate" is the complete subject of the verb "may enter," and the verb "is" forms part of that complete subject. But on closer examination we see that we have here *two* sentences, each with its own subject and predicate: — "The *man* — *may enter*," and, "*who is* at the gate;" the former is the principal, and the latter the subordinate sentence (or *clause*), and the two combined form a *complex* sentence, and not a *simple* sentence. See COMPLEX SENTENCE, p. 231.

There are two verbal forms, however, either of which may be used as part of the subject of a *simple* sentence without changing it into a *complex* sentence. These are the *Infinitive* and the *Participle.*

A. — *THE INFINITIVE*

The **Infinitive** has, to a great extent, the construction of a noun, while taking the modifiers of a verb.

Used as a noun, the infinitive may be:

1. The subject of a finite verb; as, *To lie* is shameful.
2. The object of a transitive verb; as, I desire *to go.*
3. The object of a preposition; as, He is about *to go.*

4. A predicate nominative. So used, the infinitive cannot be included in the subject of a simple sentence, and need not here be considered. (See PREDICATE, p. 301.)

The infinitive is sometimes used like an adjective, modifying a noun; as, A desire *to learn* is creditable.

(Some grammarians treat this as an appositive use, considering the infinitive "to learn" as a noun in apposition with "desire.")

The infinitive is often used adverbially to denote a purpose, a motive, or (especially after *so, as, than,* or *too*) a result; as, Be so kind as *to inform* me; Nothing can be easier than *to accomplish* it; He is too honorable *to do* such a thing.*

The Subject of the Infinitive. — The infinitive may be used with or without a subject. When a subject is employed, the rule is as follows:

RULE.—The subject of the infinitive is in the objective case. (See Rule 9, p. 46.)

When an infinitive following a finite verb has no subject of its own expressed, its subject is always understood to be that of the principal verb; as, I desire *to go;* that is, "I desire that *I* may go." We adapt the meaning to some other person by supplying a subject for the infinitive; as, "I desire *you* to go," or "—*him* to go."

The *infinitive*, however used, remains essentially a verb, and so takes the modifiers of a verb. As a verb, the infinitive may be modified by an adverb or an adverbial phrase; as, To fly *swiftly;* To speak *gently.* As a verb, the infinitive of a transitive verb may take an

* NOTE. — The infinitive active is somewhat rarely used in a passive sense; as, A house *to let* (to *be* let); You are *to blame* (to *be* blamed). We do not, however, say "These goods are *to sell,*" but "to be sold" or "for sale."

object in the objective case; as, *To study* a lesson; *To tell* the truth. The same infinitive may take both an object and an adverbial modifier; as, To study *the lesson faithfully.*

The adverb may either precede or follow the infinitive, according to the emphasis desired, or as securing best connection with other words; "To study the lesson *faithfully*" throws the emphasis upon "faithfully;" "faithfully to study *the lesson*" throws the emphasis upon "lesson;" if we join other words, and say "I advise you *faithfully* to study the lesson," it would be doubtful whether the adverb "faithfully" should modify "advise" or "study;" "I advise you to study the lesson *faithfully*" connects "faithfully" with "study" alone.

The Infinitive Phrase. — In sentence construction the infinitive with its subject or other adjuncts is best treated as *an infinitive phrase,* and parsed as a single element (having the effect of noun, adjective, or adverb, as the case may be); such a phrase may then be analyzed, when desired, into its constituent elements.*

An infinitive or an infinitive phrase may be used in the subject of a sentence:

1. **As the Essential Subject;** as, *To lie* is base; *To learn each item thoroughly* is a necessity.

2. **As a Modifier of the Essential Subject;** as, The time *to learn* is while we are young. An infinitive or infinitive phrase thus directly modifying the essential subject is to be classed as an adjective element.

* NOTE. — Strictly the infinitive with *to* is a phrase, as it consists of two words united in construction, but for convenience of explanation the simple verb-form, with or without *to* (as, "Tell him *to go,*" "Make him *go*"), will be called simply the *infinitive,* and the term *infinitive phrase* will be used only of phrases in which one or more adjuncts are added to this simple infinitive form.

3. **As a Modifier of Any Adjunct of the Essential Subject;** as, The children, eager *to go*, crowded to the door.

The Infinitive Phrase with *For*. — The infinitive denoting purpose is often the object of the preposition *for*, having a subject in the objective case; as, For *them to go* is necessary.

The entire phrase with *for* may be classed either as an *infinitive phrase* or a *prepositional phrase*. (See PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE, p. 265.) It seems best, however, to consider it under the *infinitive*.

Such infinitive phrase with *for* may be:

(1) The essential subject; as, *For him to escape* is impossible.

(2) An adjunct of the essential subject; as, The plan *for him to escape* was craftily formed.

In the former case (1) the phrase "for him to escape" is to be classed as a *noun-element*, nominative case, and subject of the verb "is." In the latter case (2), the phrase "for him to escape" is an adjective-element, modifying the noun "plan."

An Independent Element. — An infinitive phrase may be used as an independent element; as, *To confess the truth*, I do not care.

EXERCISE 45

Select every infinitive or infinitive phrase forming part of the *complete subject* in each of the following extracts, and show how each is related to the *essential subject* and to other elements of the sentence.

(In each case give the *essential subject*.)

To blow and swallow at the same moment isn't easy to be done. — PLAUTUS *Mostellaria*, act iii, sc. 2. Riley's trans.

That to live by one man's will became the cause of all men's misery. — RICHARD HOOKER *Ecclesiastical Polity*, bk. i, ch. x, 5.

To be really cosmopolitan a man must be at home even in his own country. — T. W. HIGGINSON *Short Studies of American Authors. Henry James, Jr.*

To be conscious that you are ignorant is a great step to knowledge. — BENJ. DISRAELI *Sybil*, bk. i, ch. v.

To execute laws is a royal office; to execute orders is not to be a king. However, a political executive magistracy, though merely such, is a great trust. — BURKE *Reflections on the Revolution in France.*

To be prepared for war is one of the most effectual means of preserving peace. — GEORGE WASHINGTON *Speech to Both Houses of Congress*, Jan. 8, 1790.

To be trusted is a greater compliment than to be loved. — GEORGE MACDONALD *The Marquis of Lossie*, ch. iv.

To deny the freedom of the will is to make morality impossible. — FROUDE *Short Studies on Great Subjects.*

B. — THE PARTICIPLE

The Participle expresses the action or state indicated by the verb, without affirming it. "He *did* the work," affirms the action; "He, *having done* the work," expresses the action, but does not affirm it. The participle assumes that the work was done, without expressly stating that it was done.

The first group of words, using the indicative, forms a complete sentence, with subject and predicate, "*He did* the work;" the second group does not form a complete sentence, having a subject, but no predicate, "*He having done* the work — " what then? Something more is needed to make a complete statement.

Hence the participle often makes possible a more compact construction, combining in one sentence two or more acts, which would otherwise require two or more separate sentences or clauses, as if we were to say, " He *did* the work, and *went* home "

Construction of the Participle. — The participle may have the construction either of the adjective or the noun, and in either use may retain the properties of the verb,

being modified by an adverb, or taking an object (if a participle of a transitive verb).*

The Participial Phrase. — The participle with its adjuncts may be considered as one *participial phrase*, which may be assigned its position and relation in the sentence as a single element. Then, when desired, such a phrase may be analyzed into the individual elements of which it is made up.

A participle or participial phrase may form part of the complete subject of a sentence, as:

1. The **Essential Subject**; as, *Giving* is the way to enjoyment; *Being friendly* † wins friends.

2. As a **Modifier of the Essential Subject**; as, The children, *seeing the door open*, ran out.

3. As a **Modifier of An Adjunct of the Essential Subject**; as, Angry *at being detained*, he became silent.

Here the participial phrase "at being detained" is an adverb-element modifying the adjective "angry," which is itself a modifier of the essential subject, "he;" "he, angry *at being detained*," is the complete subject, of which the participial phrase, "at being detained," thus forms part.

For the participle with the *Nominative Absolute*, see p. 298.

EXERCISE 46

Select all participles or participial phrases forming part of the *complete subject* in each of the following sentences, and show the relation of each to the essential subject and to other elements of the sentence.

(In each case give the *essential subject.*)

* NOTE. — For the Uses of the Participle, see PART I, p. 168.

† NOTE. — *Friendly* is an adjective and not an adverb. As an adverb, *friendly* is obsolete.

An itch of disputing will prove the scab of churches. — SIR HENRY WOTTON *A Panegyric to King Charles.*

Drawing near her death, she sent most pious thoughts as harbingers to heaven. — FULLER *The Holy and the Profane State,* bk. i, ch. ii.

One by one the flowers close,
Lily and dewy rose
Shutting their tender petals from the moon.
CHRISTINA G. ROSSETTI *Twilight Calm.*

A voice of greeting from the wind was sent;
The mists enfolded me with soft white arms;
The birds did sing to lap me in content,
The rivers wove their charms, —
And every little daisy in the grass
Did look up in my face, and smile to see me pass!
R. H. STODDARD *Hymn to the Beautiful,* st. 4.

What a falling-off was there! — SHAKESPEARE *Hamlet,* act i, sc. 5, l. 47.

O how grandly cometh Even,
Sitting on the mountain summit,
Purple-vestured, grave and silent,
Watching o'er the dewy valleys,
Like a good king near his end.
D. M. MULOCK *A Stream's Singing.*

The pale child, Eve, leading her mother, Night.
ALEXANDER SMITH *A Life Drama,* sc. 8.

And all the meadows, wide unrolled,
Were green and silver, green and gold,
Where buttercups and daisies spun
Their shining tissues in the sun.
JULIA C. R. DORR *Unanswered.*

Reputation being essentially contemporaneous, is always at the mercy of the envious and the ignorant. — MRS. JAMESON *Memoirs and Essays. Washington Allston.*

So the struck eagle, stretch'd upon the plain,
No more through rolling clouds to soar again,
View'd his own feather on the fatal dart,
And wing'd the shaft that quiver'd in his heart.
BYRON *English Bards and Scotch Reviewers,* l. 841.

A house divided against itself cannot stand. I believe this government cannot endure permanently half-slave and half-free. — ABRAHAM LINCOLN *Speech*, June 17, 1858. See W. O. Stoddard's Life of Lincoln.

Reading maketh a full man. — BACON *Of Studies.*

Praising what is lost
Makes the remembrance dear.
SHAKESPEARE *All's Well That Ends Well*, act v, sc. 3, l. 19.

Sir, a woman preaching is like a dog's walking on his hind legs. It is not done well: but you are surprised to find it done at all. — SAMUEL JOHNSON *Boswell's Life of Johnson.* 1763.

Seeing only what is fair,
Sipping only what is sweet,
. . . . . .
Leave the chaff, and take the wheat.
EMERSON *The Humble-Bee.*

Being in a ship is being in a jail, with the chance of being drowned. — SAMUEL JOHNSON *Boswell's Life of Johnson*, an. 1759.

V. THE ADVERB

The Adverb may form part of the complete subject by modifying any adjective, adverb, infinitive, or participle of that subject, or in exceptional cases (see PART I, p. 193) by modifying the essential subject itself; as, "*Not* a drum was heard."

Position of Adverbs. — The chief rule is that an adverb should be placed as near as possible to the word it is intended to modify.*

CAUTION. — The adverb must not be so placed that it may seem to modify a word not intended, or that it may be doubtful which of two words it modifies.

The French, having *nearly* lost five thousand men, retreated.

This implies that they actually saved the whole five thousand,

* NOTE. — The rule for the position of adverbs in the predicate is the same. For the position of an adverb with the infinitive, see p. 119.

after "nearly" losing them. What the writer meant was, "The French having lost *nearly* five thousand men —."

That is, they actually lost a number of men amounting to "*nearly*" five thousand.

The adverb *only* modifies either the word or phrase immediately following or that immediately preceding. Hence great care should be taken to place *only* so that its reference may not be false or doubtful.

"The light, sandy soil *only* favors the fern." Here "only" would seem to modify "favors," and, so understood, the statement would not be true, since "the light, sandy soil" favors many other things, as the pine-tree, for instance. The meaning is that no other soil than "the light, sandy soil" is suitable for the fern. Hence the sentence should be,

"*Only* the light, sandy soil favors the fern."

***The* as an Adverb.** — *The*, preceding a comparative, in such expressions as "*the* more," "*the* less," "*the* rather," "*the* sooner *the* better," is not the definite article, but an adverb, derived from what is called "the instrumental case" of the Anglo-Saxon demonstrative pronoun. *The*, in this use, signifies "by that," "by as much," "by so much," or the like. The phrase, "*the* sooner *the* better," thus signifies "*by as much as* (it is) sooner, *by so much* (it will be) better."

***There* as an Introductory Adverb.** — The adverb *there* is used, much like *it* (see PRONOUN, p. 246), as an introductory word serving to carry the real subject to the close of the sentence; as, *There* is time enough; *There* is no opportunity. In such cases, to say, "Time enough is," or "No opportunity is," would be both feeble and harsh. The introductory adverb *there* awakens expectation, and calls attention to the subject which is to come after the verb; also, by this device the subject

is carried to the emphatic position at the close of the sentence.

In some such sentences, we have a choice of two forms, saying either, "*There* is no one at home," or, "No one is at home."

Error. — The use of "they" for the introductory adverb "there," as, "*They* is no one at home," is a vulgarism.

Adverbs Following Prepositions. — In various phrases, adverbs seem to be used as objects of prepositions; as, *at once, on high.* (See PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE, p. 265.)

Prepositional Adverbs. — Many prepositional forms are used without an object in connection with various verbs, and are then parsed as adverbs; as, To look *down;* To stand *up*, etc., etc. *Hence*, signifying "from this place, reason, etc.," and *whence*, signifying "from what (or which) place, reason, etc.," are not properly preceded by *from*, since "from" is included in the meaning of either word.

Adverbs as Independent Elements. — Various adverbs are used, often elliptically, as independent elements; as, *Away!* (equivalent to "go *away;*") *Up! Forward!*

Yes and *No*, used in answer to questions, are independent elements, each being equivalent to a whole sentence; as, "Will you go?" "Yes" (equivalent to "I will go").

EXERCISE 47

Select every adverb included in the *complete subject* of each of the following extracts, and explain the relation of the adverb to any other word or words of the subject.

(In each case give the *essential subject.*)

There is a Reaper whose name is Death,
And with his sickle keen,
He reaps the bearded grain at a breath,
And the flowers that grow between.
LONGFELLOW *The Reaper and the Flowers*

How many a rustic Milton has passed by,
Stifling the speechless longings of his heart,
In unremitting drudgery and care!
How many a vulgar Cato has compelled
His energies, no longer tameless then,
To mold a pin, or fabricate a nail!
SHELLEY *Queen Mab*, pt. v, st. 9.

How slight a chance may raise or sink a soul!
BAILEY *Festus. A Country Town.*

After all, there is something about a wedding-gown prettier than in any other gown in the world. — DOUGLAS JERROLD *A Wedding-Gown.*

Ill fares the land, to hastening ills a prey,
Where wealth accumulates, and men decay.
GOLDSMITH *Deserted Village*, l. 51.

How few think justly of the thinking few!
How many never think, who think they do.
JANE TAYLOR *Essays in Rhyme. On Morals and Manners. Prejudice*, essay i, st. 45.

For there is no feeling, perhaps, except the extremes of fear and grief, that does not find relief in music — that does not make a man sing or play the better. — GEORGE ELIOT *The Mill on the Floss*, bk. vi, ch. vii.

There is no Death! What seems so is transition;
This life of mortal breath
Is but a suburb of the life elysian,
Whose portal we call Death.
LONGFELLOW *Resignation.*

VI. THE PREPOSITION

A Preposition can form part of the complete subject of a sentence only as part of a *prepositional phrase.*

The Prepositional Phrase. — A preposition with its object and any adjunct or adjuncts of that object forms a *prepositional phrase.*

A prepositional phrase may form part of the complete subject of a sentence, as:

1. **The Essential Subject.** — This occurs in places where *for* is used with the infinitive and its subject to denote purpose, result, or the like; as, *For him to fail* would be shameful. (See THE INFINITIVE PHRASE, p. 256.)

2. **An Adjective-Element Modifying the Essential Subject;** as, The hour *of meeting* had arrived.

When the essential subject is compound, a prepositional phrase used as an adjective-element may modify each member of that compound subject, though expressed only with the last; as, The time and place *of meeting* were fixed.

A prepositional phrase used as an adjective-element may take the place of one member of a compound essential subject; thus "The man *and* his son were present" may be changed to "The man *with* his son was present."

In the first sentence "man" and "son" are jointly the subject of the verb "were," which is therefore plural. The two nouns thus form a compound subject.

In the second sentence "man" alone is the subject of the verb "was," which is therefore singular. The noun "son" cannot be the subject of the verb, because it is itself the object of the preposition "with," and the object of a preposition cannot be the subject of a verb. Thus the words "The man *with* his son" do not form a compound subject; but we have a simple subject "man" modified by the prepositional phrase "with his son."

When a prepositional phrase modifies the essential subject, *the number and person of the object of the preposition have no effect upon the verb of the predicate;* that verb agrees with the essential subject only, without reference to the noun or pronoun contained in the prepositional phrase;* thus:

The man, *with his two sons*, was present;

Every one *of us* is here;

Not one *of them* has come;

The speaker, *with a party of friends*, has arrived;

The President, *with the advice and consent of the Senate*, appoints the ambassador;

The house *in the midst of fields and orchards* is a beautiful object;

I, *with the approval of my friends*, am determined to remain.

RULE 3. — In the case of an essential subject modified by a prepositional phrase, to determine what verb should be used, drop the prepositional phrase wholly out of sight, and make the verb agree with the essential subject, just as if the prepositional phrase did not exist.

The Prepositional Phrase with *Of*. — For the prepositional phrase with *of* as the equivalent of the possessive, see PART I, p. 42.

The prepositional phrase with *of* is often equivalent to an appositive; as, "The city *of* London;" "Known by the name *of* Augustus;" "The degree *of* Doctor of Laws."

* NOTE. — It may make this clearer to repeat what has already been said, that the noun or pronoun in the prepositional phrase must be the *object* of the preposition, in the *objective case*, and cannot, therefore, be the subject of the verb. The verb, accordingly, cannot agree with the object of the preposition in a prepositional phrase, even when that prepositional phrase is an adjunct of the essential subject.

3. **A Modifier of Any Adjunct of the Essential Subject.** — A prepositional phrase, so used, may be:

(1) An **adjective-element** modifying a noun or noun-element of the complete subject; as, Nelson, the hero *of many battles*, was killed at Trafalgar. Here the prepositional phrase, "of many battles," used as an adjective-element, modifies the noun "hero," which is an appositive of the essential subject, "Nelson."

(2) An **adverb-element** modifying an adjective, participle, infinitive, etc., of the complete subject; as, The children, eager *for play*, ran out; The books, guarded *with care*, are well preserved.

The Independent Prepositional Phrase. — A prepositional phrase is often used as an independent element, having no grammatical connection with the sentence, but having an influence upon the thought; as, *for example; for instance; in truth; under the circumstances.*

CAUTION. — These phrases are to be distinguished from such a phrase as "all things considered," which is a *participial phrase* in the nominative absolute equivalent to "all things *being* considered" or "all things *having been* considered," such a participial phrase being an adverbial modifier of the predicate. (See PREDICATE, ADVERB, p. 299.)

Exclamatory Prepositional Phrases. — A prepositional phrase after an interjection is often used as an independent element, especially with *for;* as, Oh, *for* rest and peace! In some cases, as here, an ellipsis may be supplied, "(I wish) for rest." This, however, is not always possible or necessary, and it is sufficient to treat such an expression as an exclamatory phrase used as an independent element.

EXERCISE 48

Select every preposition and prepositional phrase in the *complete subject* in each of the following extracts, and show its relation to other words of the complete subject. (In each case give the *essential subject.*)

The progress of rivers to the ocean is not so rapid as that of man to error. — VOLTAIRE *A Philosophical Dictionary. Rivers.*

The thing in the world I am most afraid of is fear. — MONTAIGNE *Essays. Fear.*

For here the violet in the wood
  Thrills with the sweetness you shall take,
And wrapped away from life and love
  The wild rose dreams, and fain would wake.
HARRIET PRESCOTT SPOFFORD *O Soft Spring Airs!* st. 4.

The flower of sweetest smell is shy and lowly.
WORDSWORTH *Sonnet. Not Love, Not War, Nor, etc.*

Only the actions of the just
Smell sweet and blossom in the dust.
SHIRLEY *Death's Final Conquest.*

Nothing except a battle lost can be half so melancholy as a battle won. — DUKE OF WELLINGTON *Despatch.* 1815.

The reward of one duty is the power to fulfil another. — GEORGE ELIOT *Daniel Deronda,* bk. vi, ch. 46.

The fear of some divine and supreme powers keeps men in obedience. — BURTON *Anatomy of Melancholy,* pt. iii, sec. 4, Memb. 1. Subsec. 2.

The course of my long life hath reached at last,
In fragile bark o'er a tempestuous sea,
The common harbor.
LONGFELLOW *Old Age.*

Nothing can bring you peace but the triumph of principles. — EMERSON *Essays. Of Self-Reliance.*

The hand of little employment hath the daintier sense.
SHAKESPEARE *Hamlet,* act v, sc. 1, l. 77.

The poem now offered to the public is intended to illustrate the customs and manners which anciently prevailed on the borders of England and Scotland.

The inhabitants living in a state partly pastoral and partly warlike, and combining habits of constant depredation with the influence of a rude spirit of chivalry, were often engaged in scenes highly susceptible of poetical ornament.

The machinery adopted from popular belief would have seemed puerile in a poem which did not partake of the rudeness of the old ballad.

The time occupied by the action is three nights and three days. — SCOTT *Lay of the Last Minstrel.* Preface.

The brigade commanded by Major-General Webb gave and received about as hard knocks as any.

The business relative to the exchange of prisoners was always going on. — THACKERAY *Henry Esmond,* ch. 14.

The help to interpreters and to public speakers to be gained by an appreciation of the different interpretative forms of literature is not dependent upon these fine distinctions. — EMILY M. BISHOP *Interpretative Forms of Literature,* ch. 6, p. 85.

VII. THE CONJUNCTION

Conjunctions connect words, phrases, or sentences (clauses).

For conjunctions connecting sentences, see THE COMPLEX SENTENCE, p. 301, and THE COMPOUND SENTENCE, p. 308.

In the simple sentence, conjunctions are used only as connecting words or phrases.

The conjunctions chiefly used in the subject of a simple sentence are *also, although, and, as, but, either, if, neither, or, nor, than, though, when, whenever, while;* also the correlative conjunctions *and — also, and — likewise, and — too, as — as, both — and, either — or, neither — nor, nor — nor, so — as, whether — or.*

Conjunctive Phrases. — Certain combinations of words having the force of conjunctions are best parsed as conjunctive phrases; as, *and also, and likewise, as if, as well as*, and the correlatives *although — still, although — yet, both — and, not — but, not only — but, not only — but also, not only — but likewise.* Any other phrases of similar import should be so classed. The phrase *as well as* is often separated with correlative force, *as well — as:*

As well the singers *as* the players on instruments shall be there. —*Ps.* 87: 7.

A conjunction or conjunctive phrase may form part of the complete subject of a sentence:

1. **As Connecting Words or Phrases,** to form a compound essential subject; as, Sun *and* rain have melted the snow; *Either* the brother *or* the sister will come.

RULE 4. — If the nouns or pronouns of a compound subject are connected by *and*, the verb of the predicate agrees with them jointly, and is in the plural number; as, Storm *and* darkness *have* their uses.

RULE 5. — If the nouns or pronouns of a compound subject are connected by any conjunction except *and*, the verb agrees with each singly and is singular if all the nouns or pronouns are singular, or plural if all are plural; as, Money, *or* credit, *is* necessary; *Neither* soldiers *nor* citizens *were* ready.

For exceptional uses, see PREDICATE, p. 293.

When more than two nouns or pronouns are connected by the same conjunction, that conjunction is usually omitted before every added word except the last; as, Men, women, *and* children attended the service; *Neither* sun, moon, *nor* star appeared.

The conjunction may, however, be retained throughout, having then the effect rather to separate the connected words, and to emphasize them by compelling the mind to move from one to the other more slowly; thus:

> O night
> *And* storm *and* darkness, ye are wondrous strong,
> Yet lovely in your strength.
>
> BYRON *Childe Harold*, can. iii, st. 92.

All the conjunctions may be omitted, with the effect of crowding and hurrying the enumeration; as, The sun, the moon, the planets, the stars, are all in motion.

2. **As Connecting Any Adjuncts** of the essential subject, or any modifiers of such adjuncts; as, Earnest *and* diligent students will succeed; The soil, rich *and* fertile, favors agriculture; Money well *and* honestly earned, is a worthy possession.

***Or* and *Nor* in Negative Statements.** — After *neither*, *nor* must be used; as, *Neither* the one *nor* the other will answer. After *not*, either *or* or *nor* may be used, but with some difference of meaning. Thus, if we say, "*Not* a book *or* paper was missing," "book" and "paper" are very closely connected; but if we say, "Not a book *nor* paper was missing," "book" and "paper" are thought of separately, and "paper" somewhat as an added item; hence, the tendency is to repeat the article after *nor*, "*Not* a book *nor* a paper," as if we said (as we might say), "*Not* a book *nor* (even) a paper." After the adjective *no*, either *or* or *nor* may be used with much the same distinction; as, "*No* friend *or* neighbor stood by him;" "*No* friend *nor* foe reproached him."

In poetry *nor* is often used for *neither;* as,

> I saw him next alone;
> *Nor* camp *nor* chief his steps attended.

***As* and *Or* with Appositive Force.** — "Lincoln, *as* president, made the address." The same general idea might be conveyed by the words "President Lincoln" or "Lincoln, the president," but "as" adds a touch of emphasis, implying that Lincoln spoke in his official character of president, or because he was president. *Or*, similarly used, implies that one of two names or words is equivalent to the other and interchangeable with it; as, The Sequoia, *or* redwood, grows to an immense height.

Elements of the Same Class Connected

Conjunctions connecting words or phrases must connect those of the same class, as nouns with nouns, adjectives with adjectives, etc. Correlative conjunctions should be so placed as to apply directly to the words that are to be so connected. To say, "*Not only* a man rich *but* influential is required" is both awkward and obscure; the sentence becomes clear when the conjunctive phrase "not only" is correctly placed, — "A man *not only* rich *but* influential is required."

EXERCISE 49

Select every conjunction or conjunctive phrase included in the *complete subject* in each sentence of the following extracts, and show its relation to other words of the subject; note and explain omission of conjunctions. (In every case give the *essential subject*.)

> The brier-rose and the orchis died amid the summer glow;
> But on the hills the golden-rod, and the aster in the wood,
> And the yellow sunflower by the brook, in autumn beauty stood.
> BRYANT *The Death of the Flowers.*

Health and cheerfulness mutually beget each other. — ADDISON *The Spectator*. No. 387.

Plenty, as well as Want, can separate friends. — COWLEY *Davideis*, bk. iii, l. 205.

A scar nobly got, or a noble scar, is a good livery of honour.
SHAKESPEARE *All's Well That Ends Well*, act iv, sc. 5, l. 105.

Sleep, riches, and health, to be truly enjoyed, must be interrupted. — RICHTER *Flower, Fruit, and Thorn Pieces*, ch. 8.

No mighty trance, or breathèd spell
Inspires the pale-eyed priest from the prophetic cell.
MILTON *Hymn on Christ's Nativity*, l. 173.

The genius, wit, and spirit of a nation are discovered in its proverbs. — BACON.

The blossoms and leaves in plenty
From the apple-tree fall each day;
The merry breezes approach them,
And with them merrily play.
HEINE *Book of Songs. Lyrical Interlude.* No. 63.

Shall ignorance of good and ill
Dare to direct the eternal will?
Seek virtue, and, of that possest,
To Providence resign the rest.
GAY *The Father and Jupiter.*

The highest and most lofty trees have the most reason to dread the thunder. — ROLLIN *Ancient History*, bk. vi, ch. 2, sec. 1.

Nothing in history or fiction approaches the horrors which were recounted by the few survivors of that night. — MACAULAY *Essay on Lord Clive.*

That miserable, rouged, tawdry, sparkling, hollow-hearted comedy of the Restoration fled before him, and, like the wicked spirit in the fairy-books, shrank as Steele let the daylight in. — THACKERAY *On Charity and Humor.*

VIII. THE INTERJECTION.

The Interjection can be part of the subject of a sentence only in direct quotation; as, "'Alas for me!' was his cry."

But the interjection often has an important influence, as a sentence adjunct, upon the expression of the thought.

The exclamation attributed to Wellington at Waterloo, "*Oh*, that Blücher or night would come!" loses most of its force if we omit the introductory interjection "Oh." Hence, while the interjection or an interjectional phrase ordinarily forms no part of the subject of a sentence, it often deserves careful consideration as an introductory term.

TO SELECT THE ESSENTIAL SUBJECT

The essential subject must be a *noun*, — or some word or phrase *used as a noun*, which we call a *noun-element*.

FORMS TO BE RULED OUT

To select the very noun or noun-element which is the essential subject, it will be found helpful to consider what can *not* be the essential subject. The essential subject can *not* be:

1. A noun or pronoun which is the object of a participle, an infinitive, or a preposition. Thus:

> Opening the door, the man entered the room;
> To gain the advantage, the boy resorted to a trick;
> For this reason the lawyer undertook the case.

"Door," "advantage," or "reason" cannot be the essential subject in either of the sentences above given, because: "door" is the *object* of the participle "opening;" — "advantage" is the *object* of the infinitive "to gain;" — and "reason" is the *object* of the preposition "for." Hence the essential subject in each sentence must be the only noun left; viz.: in the first, "man;" in the second, "boy;" and in the third, "lawyer."

2. An adjective or participle agreeing with some noun or pronoun in the sentence cannot be the essential subject of that sentence. Thus:

The *wise* man takes time to think;
The bell, *ringing* loud, aroused him.

Here "wise" modifies "man," and "ringing" modifies "bell;" hence, neither "wise" nor "ringing" can be the essential subject. But we might say:

The *wise* take time to think;
The *ringing* of the bell aroused him.

Now "wise" has no noun to agree with, but is itself *used as a noun*, and so is the essential subject. Similarly the participle "ringing" does not here agree with any noun, but is itself *used as a noun*, and so is the essential subject.

3. A prepositional phrase can *not* be the essential subject, except in the single case where the infinitive with its subject is used after *for* to denote purpose, result, etc. (See p. 257.)

Thus many words or phrases may often be *ruled out*, leaving the essential subject distinct, as the only word or phrase left that can be so used.

Example

This will be found true in the longest and most complicated sentence. Thus:

Fringed by the rapid *Meuse* and enclosed by gently rolling *hills* cultivated to their *crests*, or by abrupt *precipices* of *limestone* crowned with *verdure*, the broad, crescent-shaped *plain* || was divided by numerous hedge-rows.

Here the complete subject, extending to the verb "was divided," contains twenty-eight words; among these are seven nouns, some singular and some plural (the nouns being printed in italics). Which of these seven nouns is the *essential subject* of the sentence?

Is it the noun "Meuse"? That is impossible, because "Meuse"

is the *object* of the preposition "by," and must be in the objective case, and hence cannot be the subject of a verb or of the sentence. The next noun is "hills;" can that be the essential subject? No, for "hills" is the *object* of the preposition "by." Can "crests," then, be the essential subject? No, for "crests" is the *object* of the preposition "to." We find further that "precipices" is the *object* of the preposition "by;" "limestone" is the *object* of the preposition "of;" and "verdure" is the *object* of the preposition "with." Thus we have disposed of six nouns, no one of which can be the essential subject. We have left the noun "plain," which is the subject of the verb "was divided," and the *essential subject* of the sentence.

We might have said at first by examining the *verb* that the essential subject must be in the singular number. This is a very good way with a sentence which we know to be correctly made, but will not help us in framing a sentence of our own, where we have to decide what the verb shall be; nor will it help us to analyze a doubtful sentence, where we have to decide whether or not the verb is correctly used.

THE COMPOUND SUBJECT

When nouns or pronouns (or any noun-elements of the subject) are connected by conjunctions to form a *compound essential subject*, we are to consider whether these nouns or pronouns are taken jointly or separately. (See Rules 4, 5, p. 270.)

For exceptions to these rules, see PREDICATE, p. 294.

EXERCISE 50

Select the essential subject of each of the following sentences:

Things of greatest profit are set forth with least price.

While trying to eliminate one serious error, he improves his speech in several other respects.

Through zeal, knowledge is gotten. Through lack of zeal, knowledge is lost.

Throwing off his pea-jacket the sailor leaped on the rail and dove into the sea.

The principal thing to remember in preparing an abstract is its object or purpose.

The great art in writing advertisements is the finding out of a proper method to catch the reader's eye.

By following this method for a time the student will learn to keep his thoughts in order.

The pronunciation of English in the time of Queen Elizabeth was different in some respects from the pronunciation of the present day.

The various kinds of sentence-structure express various relations of thought.

On this side of the green the broken line of thatched cottages was continued nearly to the churchyard gate.

High up against the horizon were the huge conical masses of the hills.

An uneducated German girl in the delirium of fever spoke Latin, Greek, and Hebrew.

All the way across the strait in a line of flame the bottom of the sea seemed to have cracked open.

SECTION V

THE PREDICATE

Like the Complete Subject, the Complete Predicate may contain all the parts of speech. The predicate may also contain one element which the subject of a simple sentence ordinarily cannot contain, viz.: the *finite verb* (the verb being represented in the subject only by the Infinitive or the Participle).

The Essential Predicate must be a *finite verb*. (See pp. 217, 218, 220.)

PARTS OF SPEECH IN THE PREDICATE

We will now consider the parts of speech in their order, as used in the predicate of the simple sentence.

I. THE NOUN

The noun may be used in the predicate in any one of the three cases:

A. — THE NOMINATIVE CASE

1. **The Predicate Nominative** (see RULE 2, p. 44);* as, Every good citizen is a *patriot;* Time is *money;* He seemed a *hero;* Jefferson was elected *president;* My name is *MacGregor.*

2. **The Nominative after Infinitive or Participle.** — The infinitive or participle of any copulative verb (p. 291), such as *appear, be, seem,* etc., may be followed by a noun in the nominative case either in the complete subject or in the complete predicate; as, (Subject) To be a *patriot* is the citizen's duty; (Predicate) He was shy on account of being a *stranger.*

EXCEPTION. — If, however, the infinitive has a subject in the objective case, or if the participle is modifier of a noun or pronoun in the objective case, the noun following such infinitive or participle is also in the objective case; as, I expect *him* to be a *candidate;* I saw *them* made *prisoners.* Here "candidate" is in the objective case because it denotes the same person as "him," which is in the objective case as the subject of the infinitive "to be;" and "prisoners" is in the objective case because it denotes the same persons as "them," of which the participle "made" is a modifier.

* See also COMPLEMENT, p. 292.

3. **The Nominative by Apposition.** — A noun in apposition with the predicate nominative, or with any other nominative included in the complete predicate, must also be in the nominative case; as, The prisoner was Columbus, the *discoverer* of America.

For the **Nominative Absolute**, See ADVERB, p. 299.

B. — THE POSSESSIVE CASE

4. A noun in the possessive case may be used in the predicate when it modifies another noun or a participle of the complete predicate; as, The son lives in his *father's* house; Everything depends upon the *man's* keeping the appointment. (Compare p. 246.)

C. — THE OBJECTIVE CASE

A noun in the objective case may be used in the predicate as:

5. **The Direct Object of the Predicate Verb.** — A noun may be used as the **direct object** of the predicate verb when that verb is transitive; as, Alexander conquered *Persia.* A noun so used is in the objective case.

POSITION OF THE DIRECT OBJECT

When the subject and the direct object of the verb are both nouns, the regular order is: — subject, verb, object.* (See p. 40.)

* NOTE. — It was shown on p. 218 that when the verb is *intransitive,* a sentence may consist of but *two* words, noun (or pronoun) and verb; as, Time flies. When the predicate verb is *transitive,* the shortest possible sentence must contain three words, — subject, verb, object; as, Heat melts *snow;* Men build *cities;* Romulus founded *Rome.*

EXCEPTIONS

In some rare cases the noun, which is the direct object of the predicate verb, may precede the noun which is the subject of that verb when the sense remains clear. This may happen, for instance, when the subject denotes a person and the object a thing; as, This *land* the king gave to his favorite. Here there can be no doubt that the "king" gave the "land," and not the "land" the "king." See also POSITION OF THE DIRECT OBJECT under PRONOUN, p. 286.

6. **The Indirect Object.** — Certain verbs of *giving*, *getting*, *providing*, *telling*, and the like, as *allow*, *buy*, *deny*, *find*, *give*, *grant*, *hand*, *make*, *obtain*, *offer*, *pass*, *pay*, *procure*, *promise*, *provide*, *secure*, *send*, *telegraph*, *telephone*, *tell*, *write*, and some others, take an **indirect object** denoting the person *to* or *for* whom something is done. The *indirect object* is in the *objective case*. Thus:

Buy the *boy* a set of tools;
Find the *child* a home;
Give the *men* my orders;
Did you send *Johnson* that letter?
Telegraph the *agent* the price;
He told the *children* a story.

REMARKS

1. This indirect object, when used without a preposition, always *precedes* the direct object.

2. The indirect object is the object of a preposition understood. This will be seen by changing the order.

3. *When the indirect object follows the direct object, the preposition must be expressed.* Thus:

Buy a set of tools *for* the boy;
Find a home *for* the child;
Give my orders *to* the men;
Did you send that letter *to* Johnson?
Telegraph the price *to* the agent;
He told a story *to* the children.

4. The verb *ask* often takes an indirect object governed by the preposition *of* (understood); as, I asked the *man* no questions. If the order of words is changed *of* must be expressed; as, I asked no questions *of* the man.

7. **The Secondary Object.** — Verbs of *making* or *naming*, as *appoint, call, choose, constitute, elect, find, make, name, ordain*, and the like, may take a **secondary object** denoting office, rank, etc.; as, The people elected Washington *president;* They named the child *John.*

Factitive Verbs. — Such verbs, having the general sense of *making* or *naming*, are often called *factitive verbs.*

The *secondary object* follows the *direct object.*

CAUTION.

Make in the sense of "construct" takes an **indirect object,** which (when used without a preposition) always *precedes* the direct object; as, MAKE the *customer* a suit of clothes.

Make in the sense of "appoint or constitute" takes a **secondary object,** which always *follows* the direct object *without a preposition;* as, They MADE John *captain.*

8. **The Cognate Object.** — Some verbs not usually transitive take an object of meaning similar to that of the verb, which is called the **cognate object,** and is in the objective case; as, He lived a wretched *life.*

9. **The Object of an Infinitive or Participle.** — The object of any infinitive or participle included in the complete predicate is also a part of the complete predicate, and is, of course, in the objective case; as, The teacher told the pupils to bring their *books;* The students were faithful in learning their *lessons.*

10. **The Subject of an Infinitive** (see RULE 9, p. 46; also p. 119); as, I believe the *man* to be honest.

This does not mean "I believe the *man;*" what "I believe" is *the fact of the man's honesty;* this is expressed by the infinitive phrase, "the *man* to be honest," where "man" is the objective subject of the infinitive "to be;" and the entire infinitive phrase, "the man to be honest," is the object of the predicate verb "believe." (Compare INFINITIVE PHRASES, pp. 256–257.)

11. **The Object of a Preposition** (see RULE 8, p. 46); as, He paid a high price for the *control* of the *business.*

Here the complete predicate contains two prepositional phrases, "for the control" and "of the business," each phrase including a noun in the objective case, — "control" and "business."

12. **The Objective of Weight, Measure, etc.** — Nouns denoting *distance, measure, time, value, weight,* etc., are frequently put in the objective without a preposition; as, He ran a *mile;* The wheat cost a *dollar* a *bushel;* He is ten *years* old; The chimney is two hundred *feet* high; The shot weighed a hundred *pounds.*

EXERCISE 51

Find and parse every noun in the complete predicate of each sentence of Exercises 40 (p. 228); 42 (p. 242); and 43 (p. 299), telling whether it is the predicate nominative, the possessive, the direct or indirect object, etc., or the object of a preposition, infinitive, or participle.

THE PASSIVE CONSTRUCTION

(1) For the construction of the *direct object* of an active verb when the sentence is changed into the passive form, see CHANGE FROM ACTIVE TO PASSIVE, p. 162. Thus:

Active Form. — *Cæsar* conquered *Pompey;*
Passive Form. — *Pompey* was conquered by *Cæsar.*

(2) When a transitive verb in the active voice, followed by a *direct* and an *indirect object*, is changed to the passive form, the *indirect object* remains in the objective case, governed by a preposition expressed or understood, — in the case of nouns, usually expressed. (Compare PRONOUN, p. 287.)

Thus:

Active Form. — That *man* sold the *stranger* a *horse;*
Passive Form. — A *horse* was sold to the *stranger* by that *man.*

(3) When a transitive verb in the active voice, followed by a *direct* and a *secondary object*, is changed to the passive, the *direct object* of the active verb becomes the *subject* of the passive verb, and the *secondary object* becomes the *predicate nominative.* Thus:

Active Form. — The *voters* elected *Mc Kinley president;*
Passive Form. — *Mc Kinley* was elected *president* by the *voters.*

Indirect and Secondary Object Contrasted.

The **indirect object** stays in the objective case after the passive verb, as the *object of a preposition* (expressed or understood).

The **secondary object** is changed to the nominative case, as the *predicate nominative* after the passive verb.

13. **The Retained Object.** — Sometimes the *indirect object* of the active verb is made the subject of the passive, and the *direct object* is *retained* in the objective case, though not governed by any verb or preposition.

Thus:

Active Form. — The teacher gave the boy a *book;*
Passive Form. — The boy was given a *book* by the teacher.

Here "book" cannot be the predicate nominative, because not denoting the same person or thing as the subject; it cannot be the *object* of the verb, because a passive verb does not take an object.

No preposition can be supplied to govern "book." The only explanation is that "book" is carried over unchanged from the active to the passive construction. Hence, the noun "book" is to be parsed as in the objective case, the *retained object* after the verb "was given."

REMARKS

In some verb-phrases ending in a preposition, as to *laugh at*, to *take notice* (*possession*, etc.) *of*, to *dispense with*, the effect is like that of a compound verb; as, The owner *took possession of* THE PROPERTY.

When the verb of such a phrase is changed to the passive, the phrase is often kept together, the object of the preposition being made the subject of the passive verb, and the object of the active form kept as the *retained object* in the passive form; as, THE PROPERTY *was taken possession of* by the owner. So the sentence, "The sailors *made* AN EXAMPLE *of* the pirate," may be changed to, "The pirate *was made* AN EXAMPLE *of* by the sailors."

Such expressions are somewhat rare, and are to be explained, as peculiar idioms, on the general principle of the *retained object*.

EQUIVALENTS OF THE NOUN

An infinitive alone, or an infinitive, participial, prepositional, or other phrase, or one of the secondary possessives of the personal pronouns, *mine*, *thine*, *hers*, *ours*, *yours*, and *theirs*, may be used as a noun in the complete predicate, as elsewhere.* (See p. 285, under B, 4.)

II. THE PRONOUN

The uses of the pronoun in the predicate are in nearly all respects the same as those of the noun, and the same rules, for the most part, apply to both. Some differences are to be noted at certain points.

* NOTE. — A *clause* may be also used as a noun, forming the predicate nominative or the object of a transitive verb, — but not in a *simple sentence*. When we use a *clause*, with separate subject and predicate, as a noun, we have a *complex sentence*.

A. — THE NOMINATIVE CASE

1. **The Predicate Nominative;** as, This is *he;* It is *I.*

In interrogative sentences which begin with an interrogative pronoun, the pronoun *who*, *which*, or *what*, though placed at the beginning of the sentence, is often the predicate nominative; as, *Who* is that? *Which* is the captain? *What* are the facts?

2. **The Nominative after an Infinitive or Participle.** — The pronoun may be used in the nominative after an infinitive (without a subject) or after a participle; as, I could wish to be *he;* I did not think of its being *he.*

This use, however, is rare, and often difficult or clumsy; it should, therefore, in general be avoided.

CAUTION. — After an infinitive with a subject in the objective case, or a participle agreeing with a noun or pronoun in the objective case, the pronoun following such infinitive or participle must be in the objective case; as, I understood *it* to be *him.*

3. **The Nominative by Apposition;** as, It is your father, *I*, the king. (See p. 46.)

This use is also very rare, a pronoun being seldom used, under any circumstances, as an appositive.

B. — THE POSSESSIVE CASE

4. A pronoun in the possessive case may be used in the predicate when it modifies any noun or participle of the complete predicate; as, Did any one take *my* book? I had no idea of *his* coming.

The secondary forms of the possessive, *mine*, *thine*, *hers*, *ours*, *yours*, and *theirs*, are used in the predicate as nouns. *His* and *its* are similarly used. (See under PRONOUN, p. 66, POSSESSIVES USED WITHOUT NOUNS; compare SUBJECT, p 245.)

C. — THE OBJECTIVE CASE

5. **The Direct Object.** — A pronoun in the objective case may be the direct object of the predicate verb when that verb is transitive; as, His father sent *him*.

POSITION OF THE DIRECT OBJECT

The pronoun used as the direct object of a verb, like the noun, usually follows that verb; as, The work pleases *me;* The teacher promoted *him;* Her mother loves *her;* I see *them;* I want *that*.

Exceptions

1. As the personal pronouns, and the pronoun *who*, have special forms in the objective different from the nominative, they are not necessarily limited to the place after the verb, but may be used in some other position in the sentence.

Me he restored unto mine office. — *Gen.* 41 : 13.

Whom he would he slew; and *whom* he would he kept alive; and *whom* he would he set up; and *whom* he would he put down. — *Dan.* 5 : 19.

As the nominative of a personal pronoun is shown by its form, such nominative may *follow any object* of the verb, as in the examples above given.

2. The interrogative pronouns *who*, *which*, and *what* regularly precede the verb by which they are governed, standing usually at the beginning of the clause or sentence; as, *Whom* did you meet? *Which* will you take? *What* did they pay him? Here the pronouns "whom," "which," and "what" are in the objective after the verbs "meet," "take," and "pay."

Caution. — Such expressions as "*Who* did you meet?" are inaccurate. We may say:

Whom did you meet at the door?
Who was at the door?
Who was employed by you?
Whom did you employ?

6. **The Indirect Object.** — The pronoun is very frequently used as the *indirect object* after verbs of *giving*, *sending*, *telling*, etc. The rule for the noun as indirect object (see NOUNS, p. 280) may be applied without change to the pronoun. Thus:

Buy *him* a set of tools;
Find *her* a home;
Give *them* my orders;
I asked *him* no questions.

As with the noun, a pronoun used as an *indirect object* without a preposition must *precede* the direct object; if it *follows* the direct object, it must take a preposition, *to* or *for;* as,

Buy a set of tools *for* him;
Find a home *for* her;
Give my orders *to* them;
I asked no questions *of* him.

7. **The Secondary Object.** — A pronoun can rarely, if ever, be the *secondary object* of a verb.

It is very common, however, for a pronoun used as the *direct object* after a verb of calling, making, or the like, to be *followed by a noun as the secondary object;* as, He called *me* his friend; they made *him* captain.

8. **The Cognate Object.** — A pronoun cannot be, like a noun, the *cognate object* of a verb. (See p. 281.)

9. **The Object of an Infinitive or Participle;** as, My father promised to send *them;* I have not known of his meeting *her*.

10. **The Subject of an Infinitive;** as, I believe *him* to be honest; The teacher requires *her* to study.

11. **The Object of a Preposition;** as, These books belong to *me;* I received a letter from *him*.

12. **The Objective of Weight, etc.,** does not belong to the pronoun. (See NOUN, p. 282.)

13. **The Retained Object** (see NOUN, p. 283) may be a pronoun; as, He was given *it* by his father.

Such usage is rare and undesirable. It is better to say "It was given *him* by his father," where *him* is the *indirect object*, equivalent to "to *him*." (See THE INDIRECT OBJECT, p. 287, 6.)

The Passive Construction, as regards the *direct* and the *indirect* object, is the same for the pronoun as for the noun.

EXERCISE 52

Find and parse every pronoun in the complete predicate of each sentence of the following extracts, telling whether it is in the nominative, possessive, or objective case, and explaining the construction in each case.

> Where'er I roam, whatever realms to see,
> My heart untraveled, fondly turns to thee;
>
> GOLDSMITH *Traveller*, l. 7.

The best way to keep good acts in memory is to refresh them with new. — *Attributed to* CATO *by* BACON *Apothegms*, No. 247.

> There needs no ghost, my lord, come from the grave
> To tell us this.
>
> SHAKESPEARE *Hamlet*, act i, sc. 5, l. 126.

> All things of beauty are not theirs alone
> Who hold the fee; but unto him no less
> Who can enjoy, than unto them who own,
> Are sweetest uses given to possess.
>
> J. G. SAXE *The Beautiful.*

I can look sharp as well as another, and let me alone to keep the cobwebs out of my eyes. — CERVANTES *Don Quixote*, pt. ii, ch. 33.

Whatever comes from the brain carries the hue of the place it came from, and whatever comes from the heart carries the heat and color of its birthplace. — O. W. HOLMES *The Professor at the Breakfast Table*, ch. 6.

Whom conscience, ne'er asleep,
Wounds with incessant strokes, not loud, but deep.
MONTAIGNE *Essays*, bk. ii, ch. 5. *Of Conscience.*

Oh, Conscience! Conscience! man's most faithful friend,
Him canst thou comfort, ease, relieve, defend;
But if he will thy friendly checks forego,
Thou art, oh! woe for me, his deadliest foe!
CRABBE *Struggles of Conscience*, last lines.

Be true to your word and your work and your friend. — JOHN BOYLE O'REILLY *Rules of the Road.*

III. THE ADJECTIVE

The Adjective may be used in the predicate as:

1. **A Predicate Adjective Modifying the Subject,** after an intransitive or a passive verb (p. 90);* as, Money is *useful;* The light is *bright;* the weather grows *cold;* The plan seems *wise;* He was considered *prosperous;* He was called *great.*

REMARKS

The adjective describes or modifies the noun just as much when it follows in the predicate as when it is directly attached to the noun without a verb between.

If we say, "The good man," we assume, or take for granted, the man's goodness; but if we say, "The man is *good,*" we *affirm,* or expressly state, that goodness; in the former case we do not form a sentence, but only a phrase; in the latter case we form a complete sentence.

Adjective or Adverb. — To determine when a predicate adjective should be used, and when an adverb, see ADVERB, p. 300.

2. **An Indefinite Modifier after an Infinitive or Participle;** as, He wished to be *good;* He believed in being *good.*

* See COMPLEMENT, p. 292.

REMARKS

Here the adjective may be said to be used *indefinitely*, not modifying any definite noun. To explain such use we may suppose the infinitive or participial phrase to be in place of a clause, as "He wished that he should be *good*," "He believed that all men should be good," where "good" would be the predicate adjective modifying the subject. It is sufficient in such cases to call the adjective "an indefinite modifier" or an "adjective used indefinitely."

3. **A Modifier after a Factitive Verb.** — After verbs of *making*, *calling*, *choosing*, etc. (called *factitive* verbs), an adjective is used precisely as a noun is used when it is the *secondary object* (see SECONDARY OBJECT under NOUN, p. 281); as, They made him *angry;* They called him *wise*.*

When the active form is changed to the passive, such an adjective is retained; as, He was made *angry*. Here it becomes a *predicate adjective* modifying the subject.

4. **A Modifier of Any Noun or Pronoun.** — Any noun or pronoun, in any case, included in the complete predicate, may be modified by an adjective; as, This is the *same* man; He loved the *faithful* student.

EXERCISE 53

Find and parse every adjective included in the complete predicate of each sentence in Exercises 21 (p. 106), 46 (p. 259), and 48 (p. 268), explaining its relation to the other elements of the predicate.

* See COMPLEMENT, p. 292.

IV. THE VERB

The Essential Predicate of a sentence is always a finite verb; as, The boy *runs;* The girl *sings;* the sun *shines;* The sky *is* blue; The owner *sold* the house.

"The essential element of the predicate is the verb in its personal form."— MAETZNER, *Eng. Grammar*, vol. ii, pt. i, § 1, p. 43.

The Copula

The verb *be*, because of its connective use, has been often called the *copula* or "link," linking the essential subject with the predicate nominative or predicate adjective.

It must not be forgotten, however, that the verb *be*, when called the *copula*, is still a *verb*, and is still the *predicate verb;* it is the *essential predicate*, as being the one verb *essential* to the construction of the sentence, which would not be a sentence without it. Nothing but a finite verb can be the essential predicate. Thus in the sentence "Time *is* money," the verb "is" is the *essential predicate* — the one finite verb by which the group of words becomes a sentence; "is money" is the *complete predicate.*

It is often convenient to call the verb *be* in such use the *copula*, if we remember that it is all the time a verb, the predicate verb, and the essential predicate, as much as any other verb could be.*

Copulative Verbs

There are many other verbs, as *appear*, *become*, *continue*, *feel*, *look*, *remain*, *seem*, which connect the subject with a predicate nominative or adjective, and are hence called *copulative verbs.*

Some intransitive verbs are used in a weakened sense, approaching that of *be* or *become*, as the following: *come*, *continue*, *feel*, *get*, *go*, *grow*, *keep*, *lie*, *look*, *prove*, *remain*, *run*, *sit*, *sound*, *stay*, *turn*, *wax;* as, to *come* true (as a prediction); to *continue* faithful; to *feel*

* NOTE. — The verb-phrases formed by the verb *be* with a present participle denote a continuous, progressive, or habitual act, and such forms are grouped together under what is called THE PROGRESSIVE CONJUGATION (see PART I, p. 163). Verbs of the Progressive Conjugation are not to be broken up into the copula and the present participle.

tired; to *get* rested; to *go* lame; to *grow* weary; to *keep* busy; to *lie* hid; to *look* pale; to *prove* false; to *remain* unanswered; to *run* mad; to *sit* mute; to *sound* fair; to *stand* opposed; to *stay* settled; to *turn* traitor; to *wax* great.

THE COMPLEMENT

The word or phrase used after a verb of incomplete predication to fill up the meaning of the sentence is often called the **complement.** The word *complement* is derived from the Latin *compleo*, "fill up," "complete," and thus signifies that which fills up or completes.

Complements, it will be seen, are of different kinds. The complement may be:

1. The Predicate Nominative;
2. The Predicate Adjective;
3. The Direct Object;
4. The Indirect Object;
5. The Secondary Object;
6. The Cognate Object;
7. The Adjective after a Factitive Verb;
8. An Adverb or Adverbial Phrase (see ADVERB, p. 300).

REMARKS

1. The complements have received various names. The predicate nominative, as well as the predicate adjective, has been called the *attribute complement;* the direct object has been termed the *object complement*, etc.

But these names matter little if we but remember that a *complement* fills up the meaning of a verb of incomplete predication, and if we *keep clear in mind the different parts of speech* as predicate nominative, predicate adjective, direct, indirect secondary, or cognate object, which may all agree in being complements.

2. We need first to note the different parts of speech and their different relations to the predicate verb, and after that to observe how they agree in being complements.

AGREEMENT OF THE VERB

Observe Rule 1, PART I, page 125, as follows:

A finite verb must agree with its subject in person and number.

This rule covers all ordinary cases; only matters requiring especial notice will here be considered.

A. — PERSON

When the elements of a compound subject are of *different persons*, the verb agrees with the first person in preference to the second or third, and with the second in preference to the third.

In the *order of words* the second person precedes the third, and the second and third precede the first.

Thus we may say, Either you or I *am* in error; Either you or he *are* to blame.

REMARKS

Such constructions, however, are undesirable. We may avoid them by using a verb which agrees with the first nominative,* and repeating the verb (in the proper person and number) after the other or others; as, Either you *are* in error or I *am;* Either you *are* to blame or he *is;* or by using one of the uninflected auxiliaries (*may*, *can*, *must*, *shall*, or *will*), where person and number make no difference; as, Either you or I *must be* in error.

For the person of a verb with an *interrogative pronoun*, see NUMBER (p. 295, 6).

For the person of a verb with a *relative pronoun*, see COMPLEX SENTENCE, VERBS IN RELATIVE CLAUSES (p. 304).

* NOTE. — As the subject of a finite verb must be in the nominative case (PART I, p. 44, Rule 1), the word *nominative* may be used to represent any noun-element — noun, pronoun, adjective, participle, or phrase — that may be used as the subject.

B.—NUMBER

1. A collective noun (p. 15), though singular in form, may take a verb either in the singular or the plural number, according as it refers to the objects composing it as one aggregate or as separate individuals; as, The audience *was* large; The audience *were divided* in opinion.*

2. Certain nouns plural in form are singular in construction, and take verbs in the singular number. (See PLURALS TREATED AS SINGULARS, p. 38.)

3. Two or more singular nominatives connected by *and* in a compound subject form a *plural* subject, and take a verb in the plural. (See Rule 4, p. 270.)

EXCEPTIONS

(1) When two or more singular nominatives connected by *and* denote the same person or thing, they take a verb in the singular; as, The husband *and* father *was devoted* to his family.

(2) When two or more singular nominatives connected by *and* are modified by *each*, *every*, or *no*, they are taken separately and have a verb in the singular number; as, EACH officer *and* [EACH] soldier *was* at his post; EVERY teacher *and* [EVERY] pupil *was* ready; NO sentence *and* NO word *is* to be neglected.

(3) When two or more singular nominatives connected by *and* are emphatically distinguished by some added word or words, as *also*, *as well as*, *commonly*, *even*, *not*, *often*, *oftentimes*, *perhaps*, *too*, *usually*, or the like, they are as a rule taken separately, and with a verb in the singular; as, Famine, *and* ALSO pestilence, *threatens* the besieged city; Pity, *and* NOT fear, *makes* me pause.

(4) When the verb comes between the nominatives of a compound subject it agrees with the nominative immediately preceding it, being singular or plural accordingly, and is to be

* NOTE. — A singular noun modified by two or more adjectives denoting different aspects or varieties of an object may take a plural verb; as, *Greek* and *Roman* ARCHITECTURE *were* different in type.

mentally supplied with each of the following nominatives, in such number as each may require; as, The teacher *was waiting*, and all the pupils [*were waiting*]; The pupils *were interested*, and the teacher also [*was interested*].

(5) When the verb is placed before its subject and preceded by an introductory word like *there* or *such*, the verb agrees with the first of the following nominatives, and is understood with the other or others, in such number as each may require; as, THERE *was* time enough, men enough, and money enough.

(6) When *it* is used as an introductory pronoun (pp. 68, 246), that pronoun is itself the essential subject, with which the verb agrees, and the verb is accordingly in the singular number, though the predicate nominative may be in the plural; as, IT *is* the philosophers who have taught the worth of patience.

4. Two or more singular nominatives connected by any conjunction except *and* (as *or*, *nor*, etc.) are considered separately (see Rule 5, p. 270) and take a verb in the singular. This rule has no exception.

5. When the compound essential subject is made up of nouns or pronouns *different in number*, the verb agrees with *the noun or pronoun nearest to it*, whatever the connecting conjunction may be.

In such case the *plural nominative* should be placed *last*, so as to come just before the verb; as, The ship and all the passengers *were lost;* Either the horse or the mules *have eaten* the grain.

Such constructions, however, are undesirable, and it is better to avoid them by changing the form of expression; as, The ship, with all the passengers, *was lost;* The grain *has been eaten* either by the horse or the mules.

6. An *interrogative pronoun* commonly takes a verb in the *third person singular;* as, Who *is* there?

But when a noun or pronoun in the same construction follows the verb, the verb takes the person and

number of the nominative that follows it; as, Who *am* I? Which *are* the specimens? What *are* we against that host?

The reason for this is that the interrogative pronoun in such use is a *predicate nominative* placed at the beginning of the sentence by inversion. (See PREDICATE NOMINATIVE, p. 285, 1.)

TO SELECT THE ESSENTIAL PREDICATE

A.—In Analysis

1. Find the essential subject according to the directions given (pp. 274–276). Remember that *the essential predicate must be a finite verb* (p. 291).

2. If the essential subject is *simple* (p. 219), find in the complete predicate a finite verb (or series of finite verbs) of the same person and number as the essential subject (noting, however, the *exceptions*, p. 294). Such verb (or series of verbs) will be the essential predicate.

3. If the essential subject is *compound* (p. 219), observe (1) Whether the nominatives forming this compound subject are connected by *and*, or by some other conjunction. (2) Whether the connected nominatives are the same in person and number, or whether they differ in person or in number or in both. Then find a predicate verb (or verbs) of the proper person and number to agree with these connected nominatives according to the directions already given. Such verb (or series of verbs) will be the essential predicate (simple or compound).

If no verb can be found of the proper person and number to agree with the essential subject, the sentence is defective, and must be corrected.

B.— In Synthesis

In framing a sentence: (1) Determine what the essential subject is, or is to be; (2) Choose a verb (or verbs) of the proper person and number to agree with that essential subject, according to the directions already given.

CAUTION. — It is of the utmost importance to remember in this whole matter that appositives (p. 237), possessives (p. 238), and prepositional phrases (pp. 265–266) *have nothing whatever to do with the form of the verb;* the verb reaches past all modifiers, and agrees with the essential subject just as if no other words were associated with it.

EXERCISE 54

Find the *essential predicate* in each sentence in Exercises 48 (p. 268), 49 (p. 272), and 50 (p. 276), and explain its agreement with the essential subject.

The Infinitive in the Predicate. — For the use of a verb in the infinitive mode in the predicate of a sentence, see USES OF THE INFINITIVE, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, pp. 118–119; compare pp. 254–257.

An **infinitive phrase** may be used as:

1. The predicate nominative;

2. An adverbial modifier of the essential predicate or of any verb, adjective, or adverb contained in the complete predicate; as, He shouted *in order to alarm the camp;* This is important *for you to know;* We arrived early enough *to be admitted;*

3. An adjective element modifying any noun or pronoun in the complete predicate; as, He formed a scheme *to defraud his creditors.*

The Participle in the Predicate. — In the predicate of a sentence, the participle may be:

(*a*) Used as a noun: —

1. **The Predicate Nominative**; as, seeing is *believing;*

2. **The Direct Object** of the predicate verb or of a preposition; as, I hate *lying;* He was ruined by *speculating.*

(*b*) Used as an adjective: —

3. **A Modifier** of any noun or pronoun included in the complete predicate; as, We found him *trying* to open the door.

A **Participial Phrase** is often used as an adverb-element modifying the essential predicate or any adjective or adverb included in the complete predicate; as, He failed *by attempting the impossible;* The traitor was skilful *in framing excuses.*

4. **The Nominative Absolute.** — A noun or pronoun used with a participle and not itself the subject of a finite verb, nor the object of any verb, participle, or preposition, is said to be in the *nominative case absolute,* or to be the *nominative absolute.*

Thus, consider the following sentences: "The TIME *being* brief, I acted at once;" "The BUSINESS *having been transacted,* the committee adjourned." The participle in such an expression is used as an adjective, and the noun with which it agrees, as "time" or "business," has no predicate verb. Hence, such an expression is a *phrase,* and not a clause; yet it has often the effect of a conditional clause. Thus we might say, "As the time was brief," or "When the business had been transacted," with no special change of meaning. Similarly, "I *being in the way,* the Lord led me to the house of my master's brethren." — *Gen.* 24 : 27.

RULE 6.— The *phrase containing the nominative absolute* modifies the predicate verb as an adverb might do,

and is to be parsed as a participial phrase used as an adverbial modifier of the predicate verb.

CAUTION.— A participle so used should as a general rule have a definite subject *expressed in the same phrase.* Otherwise the participle will seem to modify the essential subject of the sentence, which may give a false or ridiculous meaning. Thus:

"Not *expecting* us, the *horses* had been turned out to pasture, and were difficult to catch."

Here the only noun with which "expecting" can agree is "horses," which makes the statement grotesque. The writer should have expressed the noun which he probably had in mind; thus: "Our *friends* not expecting us, the horses had been turned out," etc.

REMARKS

1. The phrase formed with the nominative absolute frequently *precedes the verb*, and may be *at the beginning of the sentence;* but its whole effect is to modify the predicate verb, and the phrase *belongs to the predicate*, as an adverbial modifier. (See THE INVERTED CONSTRUCTION, p. 311.)

2. The noun or pronoun may occasionally be omitted, when the connection makes the meaning clear (see CAUTION above). Thus, "*Speaking* of home, I remember, etc.;" that is, "*We* speaking," equivalent to "While we are speaking;" "*Admitting* this, the argument still holds;" that is, "*I* admitting," "if or though *I* admit, etc."

V. THE ADVERB

An adverb may be used in the complete predicate (1) as a modifier of the essential predicate (see p. 194, Remark 1); (2) as a modifier of any adjective, infinitive, participle, or adverb, or as an adjunct of a noun or pronoun of the complete predicate. (Compare pp. 193–200; NEGATIVE SENTENCES, pp. 227–228; THE ADVERB, pp. 261–263.)

The Adverb Complement. — An intransitive verb may take an adverb as a complement to complete the sense; as, The man is *here;* The letter is *there.*

A prepositional phrase may be used adverbially in the same way; as, The man is *in this place;* The letter is *on your desk.*

Adjective or Adverb. — Whether to use at the close of a sentence a predicate adjective or an adverb, is often a perplexing question. (Compare p. 194, Remark 3.)

Which of the following constructions shall we use?

They escaped *safe* to land;
They escaped *safely* to land.

The answer is, that either is right, according to our point of view. If we think of the *condition of the people* who escaped, we should use an adjective (here a predicate adjective) modifying the subject "They," just as if we said, "They were *safe.*" So viewed, we should say, "They escaped *safe* to land."

But if we are thinking of the *manner of the escape,* — that it was effected without accident or loss of life, — we should say it was accomplished "safely." We might use a prepositional phrase as an adverb and say "in safety." So viewed, we should say, "They escaped *safely* to land."

With such words as *look, smell, taste,* etc., we need to note carefully whether the reference is to the subject or to the verb.

If the reference is to *a quality of the subject,* use the adjective; as, That hat looks *pretty;* The flower smells *sweet;* This fruit tastes *good;* I feel *hot;* You look *sad.*

But if the reference is to *the manner of the action,* use the adverb; as, He looked *closely* at the signature; He smelt *suspiciously* the odor of the medicine.

VI. THE PREPOSITION

Prepositions and prepositional phrases, as used in the complete predicate, are subject to essentially the same rules as when used in the complete subject. (See SUBJECT, pp. 264–267.)

Prepositional Phrases as Adverbs. — Prepositional phrases so used are very numerous, and often more explicit than adverbs of similar meaning. Thus, "I arrived *at that very instant*" is far more precise, as well as more emphatic, than "I arrived *then*."

VII. THE CONJUNCTION

The use of conjunctions as connecting elements of the predicate is precisely similar to their use as connecting elements of the subject. (See SUBJECT, pp. 269–272).

VIII. THE INTERJECTION

The interjection can be a part of the complete predicate only in some rare case when it is used as a quotation, being the predicate nominative or the direct object of the verb; as, His cry was "*Alas!*" He cried "*Alas!*"

SECTION IV

COMPLEX AND COMPOUND SENTENCES

Two or more simple sentences may be combined to form a longer sentence, which is still a sentence, though not limited to one essential subject and one essential predicate.

The simple sentences so combined are called *clauses* of the sentence formed by their combination (p. 232). A clause is a simple sentence which is joined with some other simple sentence.

Thus all that we have learned about the simple sentence when used alone is the foundation for understanding simple sentences in their combinations which are called *Complex Sentences* and *Compound Sentences* (p. 231).

THE COMPLEX SENTENCE

When two or more simple sentences, one of which is a *principal* (or *independent*) sentence, and the other or others *subordinate* (or *dependent*), are combined, the

longer sentence formed by their union is called a Complex Sentence. (See p. 231.)

The principal sentence is then called the *principal clause*, and each subordinate sentence is called a *subordinate clause* of the complex sentence.

Subordinate clauses in a complex sentence are joined to the principal clause by *subordinate conjunctions* (p. 209), *relative pronouns* (p. 75), or *conjunctive adverbs* (p. 197).

(1) **Subordinate Conjunctions.** — To understand the use of such conjunctions, note the two following sentences:

These flowers are beautiful.
They are very small.

Each is a principal or independent sentence. Since they are associated, we feel that there is some connection, but what that connection is we are left to guess. Is the smallness of the flowers an enhancement of their beauty, or a detraction from it? Probably the speaker or writer regrets that the flowers are "very small," but admires their beauty in spite of their smallness. Then the second sentence would be a limitation of the first, and so subordinate in thought. Now we may use a subordinate conjunction which will indicate that the second sentence is subordinate, and write:

These flowers are beautiful, *though* they are very small.

The sentence is then a *complex sentence*, showing by its form that the second sentence (or clause) is *subordinate* to the first. The conjunction "though" makes the second sentence *seem* subordinate, as it really is.

Remarks

It is to be remembered that it is not the conjunction that determines the character of the clause, but the character of the clause that determines the conjunction.

***Than* as a Subordinate Conjunction.** — *Than* (see p. 98) often seems to connect *words*, but is now regarded as connecting *clauses*, a verb being always understood.*

A noun or pronoun following *than* may be either in the nominative or objective case according to the verb supplied. Thus:

He likes you better than *I* [like you];
He likes you better than [he likes] *me*.

The sentences "He likes you better than *I*" and "He likes you better than *me*" are both correct, but there is a great difference in their meaning. The case to be used after *than* may always be known by mentally supplying a verb to complete the sense, as in the sentences given above.

CAUTION. — An adjective in the positive degree with *as* or *so* should not be used with an adjective in the comparative degree followed by or requiring *than*. Thus:

He is *as* tall or taller *than* I;
He is not *so* old but stronger *than* I.

These sentences are incorrect. In the first two *as* should be supplied (see CORRELATIVE CONJUNCTIONS, p. 210); in the third *than* should be supplied after the comparative (p. 98). The sentences would then read:

He is *as* tall *as*, or taller *than* I;
He is not *so* old *as*, but stronger *than* I.

But these constructions are harsh and disagreeable. It is better to say:

He is *as* tall *as* I, or taller;
He is not *so* old *as* I, but stronger.

(2) **Relative Pronouns.** — A clause connected by a relative pronoun is always a subordinate clause.

* EXCEPTION. — The phrase "than *whom*" is an established idiom used by the best writers, as Milton, and seems to indicate a former prepositional use of *than*.

A relative pronoun is always a part of the clause which it connects, being either (*a*) the subject, or (*b*) the object of the predicate verb of the subordinate clause, or (*c*) the object of a preposition belonging to the subordinate clause, or (*d*) a possessive modifying some noun or noun-element of the subordinate clause. Thus:

This is the man *who* sent the message;
The man *whose* message I received met me at the station;
I found the man *whom* I was seeking;
He was the man from *whom* I received the message.

Verbs in Relative Clauses. — Since the antecedent of the relative pronoun *who* or *which* is usually expressed, and the person and number of the relative are known by the person and number of the antecedent, we have the following simple rule:

RULE 1. — When a relative pronoun is the subject of a verb, the verb takes the person and number of the antecedent of the relative pronoun.*

For the gender, person, and number of a pronoun following a relative in the same clause, see PRONOUNS AND ANTECEDENTS, Appendix, p. 317.

Who or Whom. — Since all the relative pronouns, except *who*, have the objective precisely like the nominative, no perplexity is found in their use, and no mistake of form is possible. *Who* has, however, a distinct objective form, *whom*, the use of which is perplexing to many persons. Note the two following sentences:

Is this the man *who* was at the door?
Is this the man *who* you found at the door?

* NOTE. — In the older style the antecedent is sometimes omitted. The relative is then always understood to be of the third person and of the number indicated by the verb or connected words; as, "*Who* steals my purse steals trash;" "*Who* praise themselves invite dispraise;" that is, the *person* or *persons* "who."

In the first sentence, " who " is the subject of the verb "was;" therefore the nominative is correctly used.

In the second sentence, " who " cannot be the subject of the verb " found," because that has its own subject, " you." " Who " is therefore incorrectly used. The relative in the clause considered is the *object* of the verb " found." Therefore *whom* is the form required:

Is this the man *whom* you found at the door?

RULE 2.—When the relative is the subject of the predicate verb in its clause, use *who;* when it is the object of that verb, or of a preposition, use *whom.*

CAUTION.—A special perplexity arises here, when some parenthetical phrase or clause intervenes between the relative and its verb; as,

I met two men { *who* / *whom* }, I believe, were policemen.

Which is right? That is easily settled by leaving out the parenthetical clause; then the sentence must read,

I met two men *who* — —— were policemen.

It would be impossible to say " *whom* were policemen."

On the other hand, consider the following sentence:

They were seeking a man *who*, I believe, they found.

Omit " I believe," and we see at once that we could not say " *who* they found;" we must say " *whom* they found;" hence the sentence, as given, is incorrect, and should be,

They were seeking a man *whom*, I believe, they found.

Try every such sentence by *omitting the parenthetical phrase or clause;* the relative that would be used if that phrase or clause were omitted is the relative that should be used when that phrase or clause is retained.

Who **or** ***Whom*** **as Interrogatives.** — The rules for the use of *who* or *whom* as *interrogatives* are practically the same as for the corresponding *relatives.* Thus:

(Subject of verb) *Who* invited you?
(Object of verb) *Whom* did you invite?
(Object of preposition) By *whom* were you invited?

Similarly in indirect questions:

He asked *who* invited us;
He asked *whom* we invited;
He asked by *whom* we were invited.

(3.) **Conjunctive Adverbs.** — For adverbs so used as connectives see PART I, p. 197.

CLAUSES AS ELEMENTS

Any subordinate clause of a complex sentence may be considered as a *noun*, an *adjective*, or an *adverb;* or, more strictly, as a *noun-element*, an *adjective-element*, or an *adverb-element.*

Clauses thus considered as elements are called *noun-clauses*, *adjective-clauses*, and *adverb-clauses.**

1. **The Noun-Clause.** — A *noun-clause* (that is, a clause used as a noun) may be:

(*a*) The subject of a sentence; as, *That you approve the plan* satisfies me.

The entire clause "That you approve the plan" is the only subject that the verb "satisfies" can have. Observe that "you" cannot be the subject, because it is of different person and

* NOTE. — Since we say "noun-clause" and "adjective-clause," it is best to be consistent and say "adverb-clause" rather than "adverbial clause."

number, and is itself the subject of the verb "approve;" "plan" is the object of the verb "approve," and cannot be the subject of the verb "satisfies."

(*b*) The predicate nominative; as, To be happy is *all that most persons desire.*

(*c*) The object of a verb or of a preposition; as, I expect *that the train will arrive on time;* They were eager for *what had been promised them.*

(*d*) An appositive; as, The proof *that the money was paid* is conclusive; I depend upon your promise *that you will come.*

2. **The Adjective-Clause.** — A clause that modifies a noun, as an adjective might do, is called an *adjective-clause;* as, I know the price *that he asks for the property.*

3. **The Adverb-Clause.** — A clause that modifies the meaning of a verb, adjective, or adverb is called an *adverb-clause;* as, I will come *when I am needed.*

Here the clause "when I am needed" modifies the verb "come," just as an adverb might do.

Adverb-clauses are used to denote *place, time, manner, degree, cause, consequence, purpose, condition, concession,* etc.

Remarks

One subordinate clause may be dependent upon another subordinate clause; as, I met him politely, because he had come to bring me the book *which he had promised me.*

Here the relative clause "which he had promised me" is dependent upon the subordinate clause "because he had come to bring me the book."

Care should be taken, however, not to accumulate subordinate clauses so as to make a sentence clumsy or difficult to understand.

To Parse a Subordinate Clause:—

1. Treat the whole clause as an element of the complex sentence, telling whether it is a *noun-clause*, an *adjective-clause*, or an *adverb-clause*.

2. Treat the clause by itself as a simple sentence, and parse each word it contains as an element of that simple sentence.

THE COMPOUND SENTENCE

When two or more simple sentences, no one of which is dependent upon the other or others, are united, the longer sentence formed by their union is a *compound sentence*.

Each of the simple sentences so combined is a *principal* (or *independent*) *sentence* or *clause*.

Thus, "The autumn has come" is an independent sentence; it is complete by itself. "The apples are ripe" is also an independent sentence; so is the sentence "The leaves are falling."

We may combine the three simple, independent sentences just given into one longer sentence which shall include them all, as follows:

The autumn has come, and the apples are ripe, and the leaves are falling.

This longer sentence is a *compound sentence*.

Each of the simple sentences composing it is now a *clause* of the compound sentence, and each of these clauses is a *member* (p. 233) of the compound sentence.

Each clause is a *principal* (or *independent*) *clause*, since no one of them is subordinate to or dependent upon another.

We may make this compound sentence a little briefer by omitting the first "and." It will then read:

The autumn has come, the apples are ripe, and the leaves are falling.

Where several clauses of a compound sentence are connected by the same conjunction, the conjunction may be, and commonly is, omitted, except before the final clause.

Since the members of a compound sentence are principal or independent clauses, no one of which is subordinate to any other, they are said to be *coordinate*, or of the same rank.

Coordinate Conjunctions. — The coordinate clauses of a compound sentence are connected by *coordinate conjunctions*, as *also*, *and*, *both*, *but*, *either*, *neither*, *nor*, *then*.

Various conjunctive adverbs, as *accordingly*, *else*, *further*, *furthermore*, *so*, *too*, *yet*, are similarly used, and are often classed as coordinate conjunctions.

As with the complex sentence, it must be remembered that it is not the conjunction that determines the character of the sentence, but the relation of the clauses that determines the conjunction. Often it is at the option of the speaker or writer to represent the same clause either as coordinate or subordinate, according to the view he takes of the matter.

Thus the complex sentence previously given (p. 302), "These flowers, are beautiful, *though* they are very small," might be changed to a compound sentence, "These flowers are beautiful, *but* they are very small." In this latter form (the compound sentence) the smallness is made as important as the beauty, since the clauses are coordinate, and the speaker might perhaps add "Therefore I should not care for them."

COMPOUND-COMPLEX SENTENCES

Any or every member of a compound sentence may be complex.

That is to say, any or every one of the principal clauses which are joined to form the compound sentence may be modified by a subordinate clause.

A compound sentence that contains one or more complex members is called a *compound-complex sentence*.

Thus, consider the following sentence:

> I dropped my pen; *and* listened to the wind
> *That sang of trees uptorn and vessels tost.*
>
> WORDSWORTH *Sonnet.*

This is a compound sentence. The two principal clauses are "I dropped my pen," and "[I] listened to the wind;" these are connected by the coordinate conjunction "and," forming the compound sentence "I dropped my pen *and* listened to the wind."

But the second principal clause, "[I] listened to the wind," is modified by the subordinate clause "that sang, etc."

Hence the second member of the compound sentence is a complex sentence.

In the following compound sentence, both members are complex, the subordinate clause in each member being printed in italics:

I know not *how long or short my life may be*, but I do know *that it is my duty to make it good and helpful to others to the utmost of my power.*

TO ANALYZE A SENTENCE

Sentence Analysis now becomes a very simple matter.

1. Ascertain whether the sentence is a *simple sentence*, having but *one essential subject* (simple or compound) and *one essential predicate* (simple or compound).

If so, treat the elements of that simple sentence separately according to the rules and principles stated under the SIMPLE SENTENCE.

If participial, prepositional, or other phrases are included in the simple sentence, treat each phrase first solidly *as an element of the simple sentence*, showing its grammatical relation *as a phrase*. Then take the *words* of that phrase *separately*, and show their relation to one another, *as single words*.

2. If the sentence is found to have more than one essential subject and more than one essential predicate, separate the clauses so formed, and decide whether they constitute a *Complex* or a *Compound Sentence*.

3. Show the relation of the clauses to each other, as *Coordinate* in the Compound Sentence (p. 308), or *Principal* and *Subordinate* in the Complex Sentence (p. 301).

4. Analyze *each clause* of the Complex or Compound Sentence *as a Simple Sentence* according to the rules and principles given for the Simple Sentence.

THE INVERTED CONSTRUCTION

The *Inverted Construction*, or *Inversion*, is the use of words in some other than the regular or usual order, generally for the sake of emphasis or clearness.

1. **Subject and Verb.** — The verb or auxiliary may by inversion precede the subject:

(*a*) In interrogation (see p. 165).

(*b*) In the imperative sentence, where the subject, if expressed, follows the verb or the first auxiliary; as, *Do* you *begin*.

(*c*) In exclamatory sentences; as, What visions *have* I seen!

(*d*) In introducing a quotation; as, "This is for you," *said* he.

(*e*) With the subjunctive mode; as, *Had* I *known* (see p. 116, 2).

(*f*) In relative clauses; as, He soon reached a neat cottage in which *lived* THE WIDOW.

(*g*) In negative statements; as, Never *was* there a MIND keener and more critical; Not only *does* HE *master* it, but he makes it practical; Neither *was* I *offended*.

(*h*) In sentences expressing a comparison; as, The longer he toiled, the more hopeless *seemed* the TASK.

(*i*) With adverbs or other designations of place; as, Here *is* a TELEGRAM; On that hill *is* a fine MANSION.

2. **Subject and Object.** — For the regular order of words in English, see THE NOMINATIVE AND OBJECTIVE CASES, pp. 40–41; POSITION OF THE DIRECT OBJECT, pp. 279, 286.

As stated under EXCEPTIONS, p. 280, a noun which is the direct object may sometimes precede the noun which is the subject when no confusion of thought will be so produced.

Adjective and Noun. — (See POSITION OF THE ADJECTIVE, pp. 88–90; POSITION OF THE ARTICLE, p. 104).

The *predicate adjective* may, however, come first in the sentence by inversion; as, *Certain* it is that this is the field. Such inversion of the predicate adjective often carries with it the inversion of subject and verb; as, *Wise are* all his WAYS.

Adverbs and Adverbial Phrases modifying some element of the predicate may precede the subject; as, *There* appears to be your error; *Here* he studied grammar; *Of fuel* they had plenty; *To these peculiarities* Dr. Martoun added another.

Such inversion is very common with the *nominative absolute* (see p. 298).

Where a number of adverbial elements would overload the concluding portion of the sentence, they may be variously distributed so that the mind follows them without weariness or confusion and gathers their united meaning at the close.

These inversions and others that might be added are especially abundant in poetry.

The important point to note is, that in numerous cases it is not possible to cut a sentence in two at some middle point, assigning all before that point to the subject and all after it to the predicate. The meaning and mutual relations of the words must be the guide to their classification in the construction of the sentence.

EXERCISE 55

State which of the following sentences are simple, which complex, and which compound.

Analyze each sentence according to the directions given.

I chatter, chatter as I flow
  To join the brimming river,
For men may come and men may go,
  But I go on forever.

TENNYSON *The Brook.*

Mysterious Flood, — that through the silent sands
  Hast wandered, century on century,
Watering the length of great Egyptian lands,
  Which were not, but for thee.

BAYARD TAYLOR *To the Nile.*

Sweet Teviot! on thy silver tide
The glaring bale-fires blaze no more;
No longer steel-clad warriors ride
Along thy wild and willow'd shore.
SCOTT *Lay of the Last Minstrel*, can. iv, st. 1.

And they three passed over the white sands, between the rocks, silent as the shadows. — COLERIDGE *The Wanderings of Cain.*

Breathe thy balm upon the lonely,
Gentle Sleep!
As the twilight breezes bless
With sweet scents the wilderness,
Ah, let warm white dove-wings only
Round them sweep!
LUCY LARCOM *Sleep Song.*

For every social wrong there must be a remedy. But the remedy can be nothing less than the abolition of the wrong. — HENRY GEORGE *Social Problems*, ch. 9.

Those who think must govern those that toil.
GOLDSMITH *The Traveller*, l. 372.

Our bugles sang truce, for the night-cloud had lowered,
And the sentinel stars set their watch in the sky.
CAMPBELL *The Soldier's Dream.*

Peter was dull; he was at first
Dull, — Oh, so dull — so very dull!
Whether he talked, wrote, or rehearsed —
Still with this dullness was he cursed —
Dull — beyond all conception — dull.
SHELLEY *Peter Bell the Third*, pt. vii, xi.

The sky is changed! — and such a change! O night,
And storm, and darkness, ye are wondrous strong,
Yet lovely in your strength.
BYRON *Childe Harold*, can. iii, st. 92.

A people is but the attempt of many
To rise to the completer life of one.
ROBERT BROWNING *Luria*, act v, l. 334.

She sleeps: her breathings are not heard
  In palace chambers far apart,
The fragrant tresses are not stirr'd
  That lie upon her charmèd heart.
She sleeps: on either hand upswells
  The gold fringed pillow lightly prest:
She sleeps, nor dreams, but ever dwells
  A perfect form in perfect rest.

TENNYSON *The Day Dream. The Sleeping Beauty*, st. 3.

There is
One great society alone on earth:
The noble Living and the noble Dead.

WORDSWORTH *The Prelude*, bk. xi.

Come watch with me the shaft of fire that glows
In yonder West: the fair, frail palaces,
The fading Alps and archipelagoes,
And great cloud-continents of sunset-seas.

T. B. ALDRICH *Sonnet. Miracles.*

The greatest truths are the simplest: and so are the greatest men. — J. C. and A. W. HARE *Guesses at Truth.*

When, musing on companions gone,
We doubly feel ourselves alone.

SCOTT *Marmion*, can. ii, introduction.

With dying hand, above his head,
He shook the fragment of his blade,
  And shouted "Victory!"

SCOTT *Marmion*, can. vi, st. 32.

Sweet the memory is to me
Of a land beyond the sea,
Where the waves and mountains meet.

LONGFELLOW *Amalfi*, st. 1.

Land of my sires! what mortal hand
Can e'er untie the filial band
That knits me to thy rugged strand!

SCOTT *Lay of the Last Minstrel*, can. vi, st. 2.

APPENDIX

1. Rules for the Spelling of English Words, p. 315.
2. Pronouns and Antecedents, p. 317.
3. Prepositions Listed and Discriminated, p. 320.

RULES FOR THE SPELLING OF ENGLISH WORDS

There is much in the spelling of English words for which no rule can be given. No practicable rule can tell the student why *grandeur* should end in *eur* and *moisture* in *ure;* why *boat* should be spelled with *oa* and *rope* with plain *o* for the same sound; nor why *robin* should have but one *b*, while *bobbin* that rimes with it has two.

But for certain forms a few simple rules may be given which will help the student to decide many cases without each time referring to the dictionary. These rules are the following:

(1) **Final Consonants Doubled.** — Monosyllables ending in *f*, *l*, or *s*, immediately preceded by a single vowel, double the final consonant; as, *cliff*, *bell*, *brass*.

Exceptions: *clef*, *if*, *of*, *sol*, *as*, *gas*, *has*, *his*, *is*, *thus*, *us*, *was*, *yes*.

(2) **Final Consonants Not Doubled.** — Monosyllables ending in any other consonant than *f*, *l*, or *s*, immediately preceded by a single vowel, do not double the final consonant; as, *cab*, *bin*, *dip*, *hit*, etc.

Exceptions: *abb*, *ebb*, *add*, *odd*, *egg*, *inn*, *err*, *fizz*.

(3) **Consonants Doubled Before Suffix.** — Monosyllables ending in a single consonant, preceded by a single vowel, double the consonant before a suffix beginning with a vowel; accented final syllables follow the same rule; as, *dip*, *dip'per; a-bet'*, *a-bet'tor*.

Exceptions: (*a*) Syllables ending in *x* do not double the final letter; as, *box*, *boxes*, *boxing;* (*b*) when the accent in the derivative is carried further back, the consonant is likely to remain single; as, *pre-fer'*, *pref'er-ence*, but *pre-fer'ring; re-fer'*, *ref'er-a-ble*, but also *re-fer'ri-ble;* (*c*) the derivatives of the word *gas* (except *gassed*, *gassing*, and *gassy*) are written with but one *s;* as, *gaseous*.

(4) **Silent *e* Omitted Before Suffix.** — Silent *e* final is ordinarily omitted before a suffix beginning with a vowel; as, *love*, *loving*, *lovable*.

Exceptions: (*a*) Words ending in *ce* or *ge* retain the *e* before *able* or *ous*, in order to avoid hardening the *c* or *g*; as, *effaceable*, *changeable*; (*b*) the *e* is retained in *hoeing*, *shoeing*, and *toeing*; (*c*) also in the derivatives of *dye*, *singe*, *springe*, *swinge*, and *tinge*, thus distinguishing *dyeing* from *dying*, etc., and keeping the *g* soft in *tingeing*.

(5) **Silent *e* Retained Before Suffix.** — Silent *e* final is ordinarily retained before a suffix beginning with a consonant; as, *dire*, *direful*; *amaze*, *amazement*.

Exceptions: The *e* is always dropped in *duly*, *truly*, *wholly*, *argument*, and commonly in *abridgment*, *acknowledgment*, *awful*, *judgment*, and *lodgment*.

(6) **Change of *y* to *i* Before Suffix.** — Words ending in *y*, when the *y* is preceded by a consonant, change the *y* into *i* before any suffix except one beginning with *i*; as, *icy*, *icily*; *pity*, *pitiable*, *pitiful*; but *marry*, *marrying*.

Exceptions: Adjectives of one syllable ending in *y* preceded by a consonant ordinarily retain the *y*; as, *shy*, *shyly*; *dry* forms *dryly* or *drily*.

(7) ***Full* as Suffix Changed to *ful*.** — The word *full*, used as a suffix, drops one *l*; as, *cupful*, *mouthful*, *spoonful*, etc. (plurals *cupfuls*, etc.; see PART I, p. 36).

(8) **How to Choose Between *ei* and *ie*.** — When *ei* or *ie* has the sound of î (= *ee* in f*ee*l), the usage may be discriminated as follows:

After *c* the combination is *ei*; as, *ceiling*, *perceive*, *receive*.

After any other letter than *c* the combination is *ie*; as, *believe*, *grieve*, *reprieve*.

Exceptions: In *leisure*, *seize*, and *neither*, *ei* is used, though not following *c*.

NOTE. — *ei* sounded as ê (= *â* in f*â*te may follow any consonant; as, *neighbor*, *sleigh*, *weigh*.

(9) **Plurals of Nouns.** — (See PART I, pp. 29–35.)

***Rhyme* or *Rime*:** *Rime* is the correct form both for verb and noun, according to the Anglo-Saxon derivation. In the sixteenth

century the word was spelled *rhyme* from an erroneous idea that it should resemble the word *rhythm* (a Greek derivative) with which *rime* has no connection. The spelling *rime* is now preferred by a large number of the best authors and publishers.

PRONOUNS AND ANTECEDENTS

Suitable agreement of pronoun and antecedent is one of the most important means of binding the different parts of a sentence together, especially when in the compound or complex sentence the pronoun and antecedent may be far apart, and perhaps in different clauses.

RULE. — A pronoun agrees with its antecedent in gender, person, and number. (See PART I, p. 53.)

The uses of pronouns according to this rule are ordinarily perfectly clear, and only special uses need here be noted, as follows:

I. Gender

Antecedents of Different Genders. — 1. If two or more singular antecedents are connected by *and*, the pronoun will ordinarily be plural (see under NUMBER), and can have but one form, which is *the same for all genders*. (See DECLENSIONS OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS, p. 55.) Thus: The father and mother are caring for *their* child. Here no difficulty occurs.

EXCEPTIONS.

1. If the pronoun refers to but one of the nouns so connected as its antecedent, the pronoun will take the gender of the antecedent referred to; as, The bride and bridegroom are living at *her* father's house. In such cases the gender of the pronoun is always indicated by the sense.

2. Two or more nouns or pronouns of different genders and singular number, if connected by *or* or *nor, cannot take a personal pronoun in the singular that will be appropriate for both or all.* Thus we cannot say, "Some gentleman or lady has lost *his* purse," nor "Some gentleman or lady has lost *her* purse."

The incorrect use of the plural *their* in such cases is noted in PART I, p. 64. The best course is to change the form of expression. We may avoid the attempt, for instance, to supply a pronoun, and say "Some gentleman or lady has lost *a* purse."

II. Person

When a pronoun refers to two or more singular antecedents of different persons, it chooses among them, preferring the first person to the second and third, and the second to the third; as, You and I must make up *our* quarrel; He and I have arranged *our* affairs; You and he have made *your* choice.

This is true also if the antecedents are connected by *or* or *nor;* as, Either you *or* I have misunderstood *our* contract; Neither you *nor* he understand *your* work.

But a pronoun following two or more connected nouns or pronouns may refer to but one of them, or to neither of them, as its antecedent. In such case the pronoun takes the person of the antecedent to which it does refer; as, Both he and I are living in *his* house; Neither you nor I can do *his* work ("his" referring to some other person spoken of or mutually understood).

III. Number

1. A noun plural in form, but singular in use (see PLURALS TREATED AS SINGULARS, p. 38), is referred to by a pronoun in the singular number; as, The *news* has done *its* work; Every means tried has failed of *its* purpose; That hundred dollars has reached *its* destination. (It should be observed that an adjective pronoun modifying such a noun is also in the singular, as "That" in the last example above given.)

2. A collective noun (PART I, p. 15) singular in form may be referred to by a pronoun either in the singular or the plural number, according as it refers to the objects composing it as one aggregate or as separate individuals; as, The committee has finished *its* work; The committee were divided in *their* opinions.

3. When a singular noun is modified by two or more adjectives denoting different aspects, uses, or varieties of an object, it may be referred to by a pronoun in the plural; as, Greek and Roman architecture were different in *their* type.

4. When two or more singular nouns or pronouns are connected by *and,* they are taken jointly, and a pronoun referring to them jointly is in the plural; as, The brother *and* sister have left *their* home.

EXCEPTIONS

1. When two or more singular antecedents connected by *and* denote the same person or thing, a pronoun referring to them is singular; as, The patriot and hero has finished *his* work.

2. When two or more singular antecedents connected by *and* are modified by *each*, *every*, or *no*, they are taken separately, and a pronoun referring to them is in the singular; as, Each town and each village sent *its* representatives; No ship and no boat was without *its* flag.

3. If singular antecedents connected by *and* are emphatically distinguished by some added word or words, as *also*, *as well as*, *even*, *not*, *too*, or the like, they are as a rule taken separately, and referred to by a pronoun in the singular; as, Age, *and* grief *also*, wrought *its* effect upon him.

5. When two or more singular antecedents are connected by *or*, *nor*, *either — or*, *neither — nor*, they are taken separately, and a pronoun referring to them is in the singular number; as, *Either* the man *or* the boy will find *himself* in error; *Neither* the trapper *nor* the Indian would yield *his* ground.

6. (*a*) When two or more antecedents of different numbers, connected by *or* or *nor*, are referred to by a pronoun, the pronoun agrees with the antecedent nearest to it, and the antecedent that is in the plural should come last before such pronoun; as, Neither the mule nor the horses had finished *their* oats.

(*b*) If, however, nouns of different numbers are connected by *and*, there is no perplexity, as the pronoun is, as a rule, in the plural, and the order of the nouns is unimportant; as, The horses and the mule were eating *their* oats.

Relatives and Antecedents

The antecedent of a relative pronoun is usually a *noun* or *pronoun* in the clause on which the relative clause depends; as, There is the BOY *whom* we met yesterday; HE *whom* you seek is not here. In the first sentence the antecedent of "whom" is "boy;" in the second the antecedent of "whom" is "he."

The antecedent of a relative pronoun may be a *noun-phrase* of the clause on which the relative clause depends, or it may be that entire clause; as, He ordered me TO BEGIN WORK, *which* I promptly did; The speaker declared THAT ALL MEN ARE LIARS, *which* I do not believe. In the first sentence the ante-

cedent of "which" is the noun-phrase "to begin work;" in the second sentence the antecedent of "which" is the noun-clause "that all men are liars."

In the compound or complex sentence perplexity sometimes arises when a *personal pronoun* follows a *relative pronoun*, since the relative gives no indication of gender, person, or number. (See RELATIVE PRONOUN, pp. 75–77.)

We may explain such cases by saying that the relative really takes the person and number of the antecedent, though nothing in the form of the relative indicates what that person or number is. But for practical purposes we may settle the matter by two brief rules, as follows:

Personal Pronouns in Relative Clauses

RULE 1. — If the personal pronoun following a relative pronoun refers to the antecedent of the relative, *it takes the gender and number of that antecedent;* as, I saw a farmer, who was feeding ***his*** cattle; I found the lady who had lost ***her*** purse.

RULE 2. — If the personal pronoun following a relative refers to an antecedent different from that of the relative, it takes the gender and number of the antecedent referred to; as, I saw the lady, and the man who had taken ***her*** purse.

PREPOSITIONS LISTED AND DISCRIMINATED

The principal English prepositions are the following:

abaft,
aboard,
about,
above,
across,
after,
against,
along,
amid *or* amidst,
among *or* amongst,
around (*see also* round),
aslant,
at,
by,
concerning,
considering,
down,
during,
ere,
except,
excepting (*compare* but),
for,
from,
in,
inside,
into,
per,
regarding,
respecting,
round (*compare* around),
save,
saving,
since,
through,
throughout,
till (*compare* until),
to (*compare* unto),
touching,
toward *or* towards,

athwart,
barring,
bating,
before,
behind,
below,
beneath,
beside or besides,
between,
betwixt,
beyond,
but (*compare* except),
mid,
midst,
notwithstanding,
of,
off,
on (*compare* upon),
out,
outside,
over,
overthwart,
past,
pending,
under,
underneath,
until (*compare* till),
unto (*compare* to),
up,
upon (*compare* on),
via,
with,
within,
without.

Amid — among. *Amid* denotes simple proximity; *among* denotes association, harmony, or interest. We commonly say "*among* friends," "*amid* enemies." Scott says of the banner in disastrous battle,

> "Like pine tree rooted from the ground,
> It sank *amid* the foes."

Among — between. We use *between* in speaking of *two* persons or things; *among* in speaking of *more than two;* as, Divide the money *between* the two, — or, *among* the three.

At — in — into. *At* is the *preposition of the point*, denoting occupancy of, or nearness to, a point in space or time; as, *at* the table; *at* the instant. *In* is the *preposition of inclusion*, as, Fish live *in* water. *Into* is the *preposition of movement to and within;* as, The man plunged *into* the water. We say *in* a country; either *at* or *in* a city, town, or village; *at*, if the place is regarded as a point; *in*, if it is inclusive. "We arrived *at* Paris;" "We touched *at* Liverpool;" "He lives *in* London;" "There are three churches *in* this little village." We may speak, with the idea of motion, of going *into* the city or *into* the country; we say an object fell *into* the water, and lies *in* the water. "He fell *in* the water" is sometimes said, but is not approved English; the word should be *into*.

By — with. *By* denotes ordinarily the active agent; *with* denotes the instrument; as, The snow was cleared away *by* workmen *with* shovels; The metal was corroded *by* the acid. *By*, however, is the preferred preposition after *surround;* as, The city is surrounded *by* mountains. We say infested *with;* disturbed *by*.

During — for — through — throughout — within. *During* may mean *throughout* a certain period or at some time or times *within* that period; *for*, in such use, always means *throughout* the entire period. We

may say, "He will suffer *during*, *for*, *through*, or *throughout*, life." We may say "imprisonment *during* life" or "imprisonment *for* life," the latter (as the shorter form) being more generally used.

On the other hand, we may say, "I awoke repeatedly *during* the night;" "The amount will be paid *during* (*within*) the coming week," — that is, at some time between the beginning and end of the week.

From — of — off. These all denote separation, but in various ways. *From* may imply either removal or source; as, distance *from;* starting *from;* free *from* blame. *Of* denotes origin, possession, inclusion, material, etc.; as, He comes *of* a noble family; the tower *of* London; the palace *of* the King; one *of* the number; made *of* brass. *Off* distinctly denotes removal; as, Keep *off* the grass.

ERROR. — In some sections *off* is incorrectly used for *of*. *Of* denotes a source of supply; *off* denotes removal from direct contact; we buy sugar *of* the grocer; pick apples *off* the tree. "I got this coat *of* the tailor" means that he made it for me or sold it to me; "I got this coat *off* the tailor" would mean that I removed it from his person — which the speaker or writer does not intend to imply.

From — with. After *differ* we use ordinarily *from*, but sometimes *with;* one thing or person differs *from* another by having unlike qualities; an apple differs *from* a pear; one person differs *from* another in stature, complexion, etc.; he differs *with* another in opinion. *Different* is correctly followed by *from; Different to* has a certain use in England, but is regarded as colloquial, and is avoided by careful writers.

Some transitive verbs which by themselves may take a direct object are also used with prepositions, often with some change of meaning, as *admit*, *approve* (which may be followed by *of*), *allow* (which may take *of* or *for*), *dispense*, *part* (which may be followed by *with*); This ticket will *admit* the bearer; That remark *admits of* a double construction; We *allowed* the architect to make an estimate; The terms *allow of* no variation; The estimate *allows for* expansion and contraction; The commander *approved* the sentence of the court-martial; I *approve of* the undertaking; Medicines are *dispensed* freely to the poor; A healthy man may *dispense with* medicine; The officer *parted* the combatants; The miser is reluctant to *part with* his money.

Consist may take *of* when denoting material; *in* when denoting essence; The securities *consist of* stocks and bonds; Virtue *consists in* right living.

INDEX

Numbers in plain type and not inclosed in parentheses refer to pages; numbers in black faced type denote Exercises or Rules; numbers in parentheses denote paragraphs, etc., on page referred to.

A as indefinite article, 101–102

Action-word, verb the, 4, 108

Address, direct, noun as nominative of, 241

Adjective, the, 86–107; defined, 4, 86; has no gender, person, number, nor case, 22, 91; a modifier, 87; position of, 88–89; properties of, 91; comparison of, 91–98; the predicate adjective, 90, 289; parsing of, 105–106; present participle used as, 169, 170; "participial," 174, 179; following preposition, 203; in the subject of a sentence, 250–252; simplicity of the English, 250; as the essential subject, 250; as modifier of the essential subject, 251; as modifier of an adjunct of the essential subject, 251; adjective or adverb, 194, 300; as indefinite modifier, 289; after factitive verb, 290; predicate adjective as "complement," 292

Adjective pronouns, 81

Adjectives, classes of, 87; descriptive, 87; limiting, 87; properties of, 91; comparison of, by *er* and *est*, 92; comparison of, by *more* and *most*, *less* and *least*, 93; without comparison, 95; with *the* used as nouns, 103; modified by adverbs, 193; adverbs identical in form with, 197; connected by *and*, *or*, *nor*, order of, 251 (Remark 1); two joined to one noun or pronoun, 251 (Remark 2); combined, as *first two*, *next three*, etc., 252; "pronominal," see ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS

Adjunct of essential subject modified by possessive, 238; modified by adjective, 251; infinitive may modify, 257 (3); infinitive phrase with *for* may be, 257

Adverb, the, defined, 4, 193; in "split" infinitive, 119; modifying verb, adjective, or adverb, 193; adjunct of noun or pronoun, 193 (Exception); equivalent to prepositional phrase, 194 (Remark 2); choice of adjective or adverb, 194 (Remark 3); parsing of, 201; as antecedent of a preposition, 203; following preposition, 203; preceding or following infinitive, 256; in subject, 261; position of, 261; *the* as an adverb, 262; introductory *there*, 262; as complement, 300

Adverbs, comparison of adjectives by, 93; modified by adverbs, 193; classes of, 194; of place, 194; of time, 195; of manner, 195; of cause, 196; of number, 196; of degree, 196; demonstrative, 197; interrogative, 197; conjunctive, 197; relative, 197; identical in form with adjectives, 197; comparison of, 198; comparison of, by *more* and *most*, *less* and *least*, 198; by *er* and *est*, 198; irregular comparison, 198; used independently, 199; the double negative, 200; forms that may mislead, 200; prepositions used as, 206; conjunctive, 197, 234 (4); position of, 261; following preposition, 263; prepositional, 263; as independent elements, 263

Agreement of pronoun with antecedent, 53; of verb, 293

Ain't, 168 (Cautions)

Among after superlative, 98

An as indefinite article, 102; not to be confused with *and*, 102 (Caution)

Analysis of sentence, 310

And, as conjunction, 208–209; not to be confused with *an*, 102 (Caution); connecting elements of compound subject, 270

Antecedent of pronoun, 51; pronoun may be, 51; agreement of pronoun with, 53; of a preposition, 203; see also PRONOUN; PRONOUNS AND ANTECEDENTS, APPENDIX, 317

Anything, "better than," 96 (error)
Apostrophe with possessives of nouns, 41; omission of, in possessive, 43
Appendix, 315
Apposition, nominative by, 45; rule for, 46; effect of, given by phrase, 237 (Remark 4); nominative by, in predicate, 279; pronoun as nominative by, in predicate, 285
Appositive, 46; pronoun rarely an, 46; a modifier, 236; of essential subject, 237; not an added subject, 237; phrase with *of*, *as*, or *or* equivalent to, 237 (Remark 4), 266; preceding essential subject, 241 (Note) does not affect person and number of predicate verb, 297.
Appositives, several may be added to one subject, 237 (Remark 3); prefixes, titles, etc., as, 237 (Remark 1)
Article, the, 101–104; indefinite, 107; two forms of the indefinite, *a* or *an*, 102; the definite, 102; *many* and *few* with, 104; position of, 104
Articles not compared, 95
As, used as relative pronoun, 77; conjunction, 208, 209; with appositive force, 237, 272
Auxiliary verb defined, 111
Auxiliary verbs, list of, 111, 137; form verb-phrases, 136; *have*, 137; *shall* and *will*, 140–143; *may*, 146; *can*, 146; *must*, 147; *do*, 148–150, 165, 167; *ought*, 154; *let*, 154; *be*, 157–160; contracted forms, 168; see VERB

Be as auxiliary verb, 111, 137; used without *do* in interrogation and denial, 150 (Exceptions); may take *do* in imperative, 151 (note); conjugation of, 157; irregularity of, 158; subjunctive of, 158; as principal verb, 159; as "copula," 159, 291; in forming the passive voice, 160; the progressive conjugation, 163

Can defined and conjugated, 146
Case defined, 39; belongs only to nouns and pronouns, 39; rules of, in nouns, 44; objective, subject of the infinitive, 46, 119; in pronouns, 53; in personal pronouns, 65; in interrogative pronouns, 72; in relative pronouns, 75; in indefinite pronouns, 89; adjective without, 91
Cases, nominative and objective of noun compared, 40; of noun in complete subject, 236–242; of pronoun in complete subject, 243–248; of noun in complete predicate, 278–284; of pronoun in complete predicate, 284–290
Cause, adverbs denoting, 196; conjunctions denoting, 209
Cautions: an not to be confused with *and*, 102; erroneous combination "had have," 139; *have* not used with *ought*, etc., 139, 154; "don't," "ain't," etc.; use of *don't*, 168; *lest* not to be followed by *not*, 209; compound subject does not make sentence compound, 236; number of possessive not affecting construction of sentence, 238; adverb falsely placed, 261; independent prepositional phrase to be distinguished from nominative absolute, 267; *make*, "construct," distinguished from *make*, "appoint or constitute," 281; objective of pronoun after infinitive, 285
Classes of nouns, 14; of pronouns, 54; of adjectives, 87; of verbs, 110; of adverbs, 194; of conjunctions, 208; of interjections, 212
Clause, the, defined, 232; as an element of a sentence, see COMPOUND and COMPLEX SENTENCE
Combinations of subject and predicate, 221
Comparative, definition of, 91; uses of, 96–98; excludes object compared, 96; followed by *than*, 98; see COMPARISON
Comparison of adjectives, modes of, 92; adjectives without, 95; *than*, the conjunction of, 96, 98, 209; of adverbs, 198
Complement, the, 292
Complete subject, the, 221; cases of noun in, 236–241; cases of pronoun in, 243–248; adjective in, 250–252; verb in, 254; infinitive in, 254–257; the, participle in, 258–259; adverb in, 261–263; preposition in, 264–267; conjunction in, 269–272; interjection in, 273
Complete predicate, the, 221, 277–301; noun in, 278–284; pronoun in, 284–288; adjective in, 289–290; verb in, 291–299; adverb in, 299; preposition in, 300; conjunction in, 301; interjection in, 301
Complex sentence, 301–308; subordinate conjunctions in, 302; clauses as elements of, 306

Compound sentence, 308–310; coordinate conjunctions in, 309
Compound subject, 219; elements of, connected by *and*, *or*, *nor*, etc., 270; agreement of verb with, 293
Compounds, nouns, plurals of, 35
Conjugation defined, 129; of present indicative, 130–132; condensed form of, 131; of present subjunctive, 133; of *have* as auxiliary, 137; of *shall*, 140; of *will*, 140; of declarative and purposive futures, 143; of indicative mode, 144; of subjunctive mode, 145; of *may*, 146; of *can*, 146; of *must*, 147; of potential mode, 147; of *do* as auxiliary, 148
Conjugations, full, of active voice, 150–153; of *ought* and *let*, 154; of *love* (active voice), 150; of *give* (active voice), 152; of *have* (in full, active voice), 153; of *be*, 157; of *love* (passive voice), 161; progressive. 163–165; interrogative form, 165; in Ancient or Solemn Style, 198
Conjunction, the, 208–211; as a part of speech, 3; defined 5, 208; parsing of, 210; omitted in series of terms, 270; *and*, *or*, *nor*, etc., in compound subject, 270; *as* and *or* with appositive force, 272
Conjunctions, list of, 208; classes of, 208; coordinate, 208; subordinate, 209; divisions of subordinate, 209; *than*, as denoting comparison, 209; correlative, 210; in subject of simple sentence, 269; as connecting adjuncts or modifiers of subject, 271; *or* and *nor* in negative statements, 271; must connect elements of the same class, 272; see also COMPLEX SENTENCE; COMPOUND SENTENCE
Conjunctive Phrase, 270; having force of appositive, 237 (4), 272
Connections of possessive (pronouns), 60
Connectives, 233; see RELATIVE PRONOUN; PREPOSITION; CONJUNCTION; COMPLEX SENTENCE; COMPOUND SENTENCE
Construction, defined, 233; of the participle, 258; passive, in predicate, 282–284; the inverted, 311; see also GENDER; PERSON; NUMBER; CASE; SUBJECT; PREDICATE; SENTENCE
Contingency, conjunctions denoting, 209
Contractions of verb-forms, 168 (Cautions)
"*Copula*," the verb *be* as the, 291
Date, how written, 100
Declensions of personal pronouns, 55; of *who*, 72, 75
Degrees of adjectives, 91; of adverbs, 198
Demonstrative pronouns, 70
Distance, objective of, 282
Do as auxiliary, 148–150, 165, 167; as principal verb, 148
Don't, 168 (Cautions)

Element, infinitive phrase may be, 257; prepositional phrase as, 265, 267
Elements of the sentence, 226; independent, 226; independent, adverbs as, 263
Emphasis, *do* as auxiliary of, 149
Endings, of nouns, no sure indication of gender, 20; disuse of feminine, 20
er, forming comparative degree of adjective, 92; of adverb, 198
ess, as feminine suffix, 19
Essential predicate, the, 219; simple, 220(1); compound, 220 (2); not necessarily the most important word, 224 (Remarks); must be finite verb, 277, 291; to select the, 296
Essential subject, the, 218; simple, 219 (1); compound, 219 (2); not necessarily the most important word, 224 (Remarks); adjuncts of the, 236; compound, 236; appositive of, 237; prepositional phrase as, 265 (1); prepositional phrase as modifier of, 265; simple, modified by prepositional phrase, distinguished from compound subject, 265; how to select the, 274; forms to be ruled out, 274
est forming superlative of adjective, 92; of adverb, 198
Etymology, as a term, 1
Exercises, **1**, Parts of Speech, 6; **2**, Subject and Predicate, 9; **3**, Three-word Sentences, 11; **4**, Nouns, 13; **5**, Common and Proper Nouns, 15; **6**, Gender of Nouns, 24; **7**, Person of Nouns, 28; **8**, Number in Nouns, 38; **9**, Cases of Nouns, 47; **10**, Parsing of Nouns, 48–49; **11**, Pronouns, 52; **12**, Gender of Personal Pronouns, 60; **13**, Person and Number of Personal Pronouns, 64; **14**, Personal Pronouns, 68; **15**, Demonstrative Pronouns, 71; **16**, Interrogative Pronouns, 74; **17**, Relative Pronouns, 77; **18**, Indefinite Pronouns, 80; **19**, Adjective Pro-

nouns, 83; **20,** Parsing of Pronouns, 86; **21,** Adjectives, 106; **22,** Verbs, 109; **23,** Participles, 126; **24,** Principal Parts, etc., of Verbs, 136; **25,** Auxiliary Verbs, 145; **26,** Auxiliary Verbs, 150; **27,** Conjugations, Drill on, 155; **28,** Conjugation of *Be*, Drill on, 160; **29,** Change from Active to Passive, 162; **30,** Active to Passive, and Passive to Active, 163; **31,** Progressive Conjugation, 165; **32,** Negative and Interrogative Forms, 167; **33,** Present Participle, 173; **34,** Parsing of Verb, 192; **35,** Parsing of Adverb, 201; **36,** Parsing of Prepositions, 207; **37,** Parsing of Conjunctions, 210; **38,** Parsing of Interjections, 213; **39,** Essential Subject and Predicate, 225; **40,** Kinds of Sentences, 228; **41,** Analysis of Simple Sentences, 234; **42,** Noun in Complete Subject, 242; **43,** Pronouns in the Complete Subject, 249; **44,** Adjectives in the Complete Subject, 252; **45,** Infinitive in Complete Subject, 257; **46,** Participles in Complete Subject, 259; **47,** Adverbs in Complete Subject, 263; **48,** Prepositions and Prepositional Phrases in Complete Subject, 268; **49,** Conjunctions in Complete Subject, 272; **50,** Selecting the Essential Subject, 276; **51,** Nouns in Complete Predicate, 282; **52,** Pronouns in Complete Predicate, 288; **53,** Parsing Adjectives in Complete Predicate, 290; **54,** Finding Essential Predicate, 297; **55,** Complex and Compound Sentences, 312

Exclamation, interjection used for, 5, 211; sentence expressing, 227; noun as nominative of, 241; prepositional phrase as, 267

Few with the article, 104

First two, etc., 252

For, infinitive phrase with, 257

Form of pronoun as guide in parsing, 55; person indicated by change of, in personal pronouns, 60, 65; in verbs, 123–124

Forms of English verb, 135

Future tense, auxiliaries of the, 140; the declarative, 143; the purposive, 143

Future-perfect tense, declarative, 143; purposive, 143

Gender defined, 15; belongs only to nouns and pronouns, 15; distinguished from sex, 16; rules of, 16; indications of, in nouns, 17; denoted by prefixes, 19; denoted by suffixes, 19; slight use of, in English, 22; of nouns not affected by pronouns, 22; nouns indeterminate in, 21–23; "common," 22 ; of nouns known only by meaning, 23; of personal pronouns, 56–58; of pronoun when antecedent indeterminate, 58; of pronouns, special uses in, 58; connections of possessive, 60; uses of relative pronouns in, 76; adjective without, 91

"*Gerund*," the, 175

Give, conjugation of (active voice), 152–153

Go, peculiar use of, 164 (2)

Grammar, definition of, 1; divisions of, 1

Groups of words, possessives of, 42; see CONJUNCTIVE PHRASE; INFINITIVE PHRASE; PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE

Had rather, as idiom, 139

Have, conjugated as an auxiliary verb, 137–138; as a principal verb, 139; used with or without *do* in interrogation and negation, 150 (Exceptions)

I, pronoun, has no antecedent, 51; always capitalized, 60; always expressed, 60; in compound essential subject, 243 (Remarks)

Idioms, the double possessive, 43; *had rather*, 139; "let alone," 155; peculiar use of *go*, 164 (3); "is being built," 177; *not* with noun or pronoun, 193; the retained object, 284

Imperative mode, the, 117; tense of, 123; *do* used with, 150, 151 (Note)

In after superlative, 98

Indicative mode, the, 116; alone has all six tenses, 122; present tense, 130–132; past tense, 132–133; full conjugation of, 144

Infinitive, mode, 117; uses of, 118; infinitive phrase, 119; tenses of, 123; subject of, 46, 119, 255; the "split" infinitive, 119; "infinitive in *ing*," 175; noun as object of, 239; in the subject, 254; takes modifiers of verb, 255; object of the, 255–256; as the essential subject, 256 (1); as modifier of the essential subject, 256

(2); as modifier of adjunct of essential subject, 257 (3); noun as nominative after, 278; subject or object of, in predicate, 281; pronoun as nominative after, 285; pronoun as object of, in predicate, 287; pronoun as subject of, in predicate, 297

Infinitive phrase, 119; as essential subject, 256 (1); as modifier of essential subject, 256 (2); with *for*, 257; as independent element, 257; in predicate, 297

Inflection, defined, 29 (footnote); in plurals of nouns, 29; in possessives of nouns, 41; in personal pronouns, 56; in interrogative pronouns, 72; in relative pronouns, 75; in verbs, 130–135; in adjectives and adverbs, see COMPARISON

ing as ending of present participle, 134; verbal form in, 168–178; form in, used in passive sense, 176; see also PARTICIPLE, PRESENT

Interjection, the, as a part of speech, 3; defined, 5, 211; *O* and *oh* distinguished, 212; parsing of, 213; in subject, 273; important as sentence adjunct, 273; in predicate, 301

Interjections classified, 212; various parts of speech used as, 212

Interrogation requires auxiliary, 149; *do* as auxiliary of, 148, 149, (2), 165, 167; exceptions in use of *have* and *be*, 150

Interrogative pronouns, 72–73, 295; in complex sentence, 306

Inverted construction, the, 311

Irregular verbs, 111–112; list of, 180–184; "*Is being built*," 177.

It, as indefinite pronoun, 51; as indeterminate neuter, used for living beings, 59; as introductory pronoun, 68, 246–248

Kind, "these *kind*," 82 (error)

Lest, meaning "that not," 209 (Caution)

Let, imperative use of, 154; "let alone" (Peculiar Idiom), 155; "lettest," 189, (footnote)

Letters, plurals of, 37

Love, conjugation of, active voice, 150; passive voice, 161

Many with article, 104; *many a*, 104

Masculine, indeterminate (pronoun), 58; see also GENDER

May defined and conjugated, 146

Measure, the objective of, 282

Members of complex or compound sentence, 233

Mine before a vowel, 66; see POSSESSIVES OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS

Mode, defined, 115; indicative, 116; subjunctive, 116; potential, 117; imperative, 117; infinitive, 117; see CONJUGATIONS; VERB

Modes, tenses in all, 123; of comparison (adjectives), 92; (adverbs), 198

Modifier, adjective a, 87, 289

Modifiers of verb used with infinitive, 255

Money, plural of, 32

More forming comparative of adjectives, 93; of adverbs, 198

Most forming superlative of adjectives, 93; of adverbs, 198

Most as superlative suffix, 95

Must, defined and conjugated, 147

Negation requires auxiliary, 149; *do* as auxiliary of, 149, 165, 167; exceptions in use of *have* and *be*, 150; see also NEITHER; NOR; NOT

Neither followed by *nor*, 210, 271

Neuter defined, 16; indeterminate (pronoun), 59; see also GENDER

No, adjective, in place of *none*, 81; followed by *or* or *nor*, 271

Nominative, predicate, the, 44; of direct address, 45; by apposition, 45; absolute, 45, 298; independent, 241; after infinitive or participle, (noun) 278, (pronoun) 285; interrogative pronoun as predicate nominative, 285; predicate nominative as "complement," 292

Nominative case, the, defined, 40; rules for, in nouns, 44; of noun, as essential subject, 236; as appositive of essential subject, 237; of pronoun, as essential subject, 243; of pronoun in predicate, 285; of pronoun by apposition in predicate, 285

Nominatives connected by *and*, *or*, *nor*, etc., 270, 294

None, singular or plural, 80; not an adjective pronoun, 81

Nor after *neither*, or *not*, 210, 271
Not, followed by *or* or *nor*, 210, 271; compared with other negative forms, 228 (Remarks); see also ADVERB
Noun, the, as a part of speech, 3; defined, 4, 12; the name-word, 13; gender in, 15–23; person in, 25–28; number in, 29–38; case in, 39–46; parsing of, 47–48; pronoun a substitute for, 50; as antecedent of pronoun, 51; pronoun used independently like, 52; pronoun of first person expressed with, 61; pronoun of second person expressed or omitted with, 61; pronoun of third person not expressed with, 61; position of adjective with, 88; present participle used as, 170 (Examples 3 and 4); the "verbal," 176; adverb as adjunct of, 193 (Exception); as antecedent of preposition, 203; as object of a preposition, 203; in the complete subject, 236; as the essential subject, 236; cases of, in complete subject, 240–242; independent nominative of, 241; in the predicate, 278–284; as the predicate nominative, 278; as the nominative after infinitive or participle, 278; possessive case of, in predicate, 279; objective case of, in predicate, 279–284 (see OBJECT; OBJECTIVE); equivalents of, 284
Nouns, classes of, 14; Common, 14; Proper, 14; Collective, 15, 294; Diminutive, 15; properties of, 15; gender of, 15; masculine, 17; feminine, 17; in *ess*, *ine*, and *trix*, 19; endings of, no sure indication of gender, 20; indeterminate in gender, 21; with or without pronouns of person, 25; personification in, 27; choice of *s* or *es* in plural of, 29; regular plurals of, 29; in *o*, plurals of, 31; in *y*, plurals of, 31; irregular plurals of, 32; unchanged in plural, 33; double plurals of, 34; pronunciation of final *s* in plurals of, 34; plurals of compounds, 35; apposition in, 46; personal pronouns with or without, 60; *mine*, etc., used as, 66; possessives of pronouns with, 66; adjectives with *the* used as, 103
Number defined, 29; belongs only to nouns, pronouns, and verbs, 29; in nouns, 29–38; in pronouns, 63–64; in demonstrative pronouns, 70; in indefinite pronouns, 80; none in adjectives, 91; in the verb, 124–125; plural following introductory *it*, 248; of verb after compound subject, 270; of verb after various nominatives, 294
Numerals, plurals of, 37, 91–101; cardinal, 99; ordinal, 100; not compared, 95; cardinal, used as nouns, 99; ordinal, used as nouns, 101

Object, noun the name of, 12
Object (grammatical) of a verb, 8, 46; of a preposition, 46, 203–204; infinitive as, 118 (2, 3), 254 (2, 3); see also NOUN, EQUIVALENTS OF; of infinitive or participle in subject, 239; of preposition in subject, 239; direct, of predicate verb, 279, 286; position of direct object, 279, 286 (also 280, Exception); indirect, 280, 287; secondary, 281; cognate, 281; of infinitive or participle in predicate, 281, 287; of a preposition in predicate, 282, 287; the retained, 282; indirect and secondary contrasted, 283; clause as, see COMPLEX SENTENCE and COMPOUND SENTENCE; direct, indirect, etc., as complement, 292; see INVERTED CONSTRUCTION
Objective case, defined, 40; how distinguished from nominative, in nouns, 40; of nouns, Rules for, 46; known by form in personal pronouns, 55; in interrogative pronouns, 72; in relative pronouns, 75; subject of infinitive, see INFINITIVE; of noun after infinitive or participle in complete subject, 239; of noun in prepositional phrase in subject, 239; of noun in predicate, 279–284; see also OBJECT
Octave, the, of speech, 10
Of, phrase with, an equivalent of the possessive, 42; possessive of noun after, 43; of pronoun, 67; after superlatives, 98; phrase with, equivalent of appositive, 237, 266
Only, uses of, 199
Or, in negative statements, 210, 271; with appositive force, 272
Order of words, 8, 40; see also POSITION; INVERTED CONSTRUCTION
Ought, semi-auxiliary, 154; never used with *have*, *do*, etc., 154 (Caution)

Parsing, defined, 5; of the noun, 47–48; form of pronoun as guide in, 55; of the pronoun, 84–86; of the adjective, 105–106; of the present participle, 173; of the verb, 192; of the adverb, 201; of the preposition, 207; of the conjunction, 210; of the interjection, 213

Participial phrase, in subject, 259; in predicate, 298

Participle, defined, 126, 171; present, 126; past, 126; present, how formed, 134; past, how formed, 135; present, 168–178; four uses of, 171; with or without article, 172 (Remarks); parsing of present, 173; used in passive sense, 176–177; past, 178; noun as object of, in subject, 239; possessive of noun or pronoun with, 246; in subject, 258–259; expresses without affirming action, 258; construction of, 258; as the essential subject, 259 (1); as modifier of essential subject, 259 (2); as modifier of adjunct of essential subject, 259 (3); noun as nominative after, 278; object of, in predicate, 281; pronoun as nominative after, 285; in predicate, 297

Participles, list of, 126; uses of, 168–180; phrase-participles, 180; as participial prepositions, 205

Parts of Greek and of Latin verb, 135

Parts, principal, of verb, 129

Parts of Speech, a division of grammar, 2; named and defined, 3–5; list of, 3; as making the sentence, 9; in essential subject, 235; in complete subject, 236; in the predicate, 278–301

Passive, construction of nouns with, in predicate, 282–284; see VERB

Person, defined, 25; of nouns, 25; indicates no change in form of noun, 26; indicated by change of form, in personal pronouns, 60; second, singular, of pronoun disused, 63; third, plural, of pronouns, incorrectly used for singular, 64; in relative pronouns, 76; adjective without, 91; in verbs, 123–124; second, singular, of verbs disused, 124 (see THE ANCIENT OR SOLEMN STYLE); third, singular, of verb, 131; of predicate verb, 293; nominatives differing in, 293; of interrogative pronouns, 295

Personification, in nouns, 27; in pronouns, 62

Phrase, the, defined, 232; as antecedent of a preposition, 203; following preposition, 203; see CONJUNCTIVE PHRASE; INFINITIVE PHRASE; PARTICIPIAL PHRASE; PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE

Phrase-Participles, 180

Phrase-Prepositions, 204

Phrases, pronominal, 79

Plural, nouns unchanged in, 33; of pronoun of second person used for singular, 64; of verb following introductory *it*, 248; of verb with compound subject, 270, 294; see VERB

Plurals of nouns, regular, 29; of nouns, irregular, 32; choice of *s* or *es* in, 29; of, nouns in *o*, 31; of nouns in *y*, 31; pronunciation of final *s* in, 34; double of nouns, 34; of compounds, 35; of titles, 37; of letters, numerals, etc., 37; treated as singulars, 38; of personal pronouns, 55, 63–64; of demonstrative pronouns, 70; of indefinite pronouns, 80; of adjective pronouns, 82

Position of nominative and objective in sentence, 40, 279; of adjective, 88; of the article, 104; of adverbs, 261; of direct object, 279; of indirect object, 280; of secondary object, 281; of pronoun as direct object, 286; see also INVERTED CONSTRUCTION

Possessive case, defined, 40; of noun, form of, 41; phrase, with *of* an equivalent to, 42, 266; a double possessive, 43; pronunciation of, 43; apostrophe only used, 43; of nouns, rule for, 45; of pronouns, 55, 66–67, 75–76; double of pronoun, 67; *whose* as possessive of *which*, 75; of noun modifying essential subject, 238; of noun modifying adjunct of subject, 238; number of the, does not affect construction of sentence, 238 (Caution); of pronoun modifying essential subject, 244: of pronoun as essential subject, 245; of pronoun modifying adjunct of essential subject, 245; of noun or pronoun with participle, 246; of noun in predicate, 279; of pronoun in predicate, 285

Possessives of nouns ending in *s*, 43 (*a*) (*b*), 44 (*c*); of groups of words, 42; of irregu-

lar plurals, 44; of personal pronouns with nouns, 66; without nouns, 66

Potential mode, the, 117; tenses of, 123; conjugation of, 145–148; also in conjugations of all verbs

Predicate, the, defined, 7, 217; "logical predicate," 222; the essential, 219; "grammatical predicate," 221; predicate verb, 221; the complete, 221; the essential predicate must be a finite verb, 217, 218, 220 (1), 277, 291; the nominative after infinitive or participle in, 278; nominative by apposition in, 279; the noun in, 278–284; the possessive case of noun in, 279; the pronoun in, 284–288; the verb in, 291–299; to select the essential, 296; the adverb in, 299; the preposition in, 300; the conjunction in, 301; the interjection in, 301

Predicates, combinations of, with subjects, 221; subjects and predicates compared, 222

Predicate adjective, the, 8, 90, 289

Predicate nominative, 8, 44, 278

Predication, complete and incomplete, verbs of, 113

Prefixes (titles, etc.), plurals of, 37; as appositives, 237 (Remark 1)

Preposition, the, as a part of speech, 3; defined, 5, 202, 202–207; antecedent of, 202, 203; following its object, 203 (Remarks); relations denoted by, 203; noun or pronoun as object of, 203; followed by verb, adjective, adverb, or phrase, 203; phrase-prepositions, 204; parsing of, 207; in complete subject, 264–268; only in subject as part of prepositional phrase, 264; prepositional phrase in complete subject, 265–268; noun as object of, in predicate, 282; pronoun as object of, in predicate, 287

Prepositional phrase, 206; with *of*, as equivalent of the possessive, 42, 266; with *of*, as equivalent of an appositive, 237 (Remark 4), 266; noun as object in, 239; in subject, 239, 265–268; as essential subject, 265 (1); as an adjective-element modifying essential subject, 265 (2); as independent element distinguished from nominative absolute, 267; exclamatory, 267; modifying any adjunct of essential subject, 267 (3); as an adjective-element, 267 (1); as an adverb-element, 267 (2)

Prepositions, verbs made transitive by, 110, 206; participial, 205; associated, 205; as adverbs, 206; inseparable, 206; adverbs following, 263; listed and discriminated, APPENDIX, 320

Pronoun, the, as a part of speech, 3, 50–86; defined, 4, 50; a substitute for a noun, 50; antecedent of, 51; also, APPENDIX, 317; *I*, has no antecedent, 51; used as an antecedent, 51; *it* as indefinite, 51; independent like noun, 52; interrogative, without antecedent, 52; *what* has no antecedent, 52; agreement of, with antecedent, 53; form of, as guide in parsing, 55; personal, referring to antecedent indeterminate in gender, 58; indeterminate masculine, 58; indeterminate neuter, 59; of first person, always expressed, 60; connections of possessive, 60; of second person expressed or omitted, 61; third person, not expressed with noun, 61; special uses of *we*, 67; of *you*, 67; *it* indefinite, 67; *it*, as introductory pronoun, 68; *as* used as a relative, 77; phrases, 79; parsing of, 84–86; position of adjective with, 90; adverb as adjunct of, 193 (Exception); as antecedent of preposition, 203; as object of a preposition, 203; in complete subject, 243–248; as the essential subject, 243; rarely an appositive, 46, 244; possessive case of, in subject, 244; possessive of, modifying essential subject, 244; possessive of, used as essential subject, 245; possessive of, modifying adjunct of essential subject, 245; *it* as introductory subject, 68, 246–248; in predicate, 284–288; as direct object, 286; as indirect object, 286; as object of infinitive or participle, 287; as subject of infinitive, 287; in predicate, as object of a preposition, 287

Pronouns, personal, 55; declensions of personal, 55; personal, nouns used with or without, 25, 60; without antecedents, 51; properties of, 53; classes of, 54; personal, gender of, 56–58; personal, person in, 60; personal, with or without nouns, 60; personification in, 62; personal, number in, 63; use of *you* or *thou*, 63; personal, case in, 65; possessives of, with

nouns, 66; without nouns, 66; personal, compound, 67; demonstrative, 70; interrogative, 72; interrogative, have no antecedents, 73; relative, 75; relative, gender uses of, 76; relative, personal uses of, 76; relative, compound, 77; indefinite, 78; distributive, 79; reciprocal, 79; adjective, 81; relative, as connectives, 234 (3); in complex sentence, 303–305

Pronouns and Antecedents, APPENDIX, 317

Pronunciation of final *s* in plurals, 34; of the possessive, 43; of *the* as definite article, 102; of *do* and *does*, 148

Purpose, conjunctions denoting, 209

Questions, direct or indirect, 73; see INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS; INTERROGATION

Reason, adverbs denoting, 196; conjunctions denoting, 209

Relative pronouns, 75–77; *as* so used, 77; person and number of, in Ancient or Solemn Style, 191; as connectives, 234 (3); in complex sentence, 303–305

Result, adverbs denoting, 196; conjunctions denoting, 209

Root-form of verb, 130

Rule, of grammar, defined, 1

Rules, of gender, 16; of case in nouns, 44; pronoun and antecedent, 53; properties of pronoun indicated by its form, 56; gender of personal pronouns, 56–58; for position of adjective, 88–89; object of a preposition, 204; for noun as essential subject, 236; pronoun as essential subject, 244; for verb after subject modified by prepositional phrase, 266; nouns or pronouns of subject connected by *and*, 270; nouns or pronouns connected by conjunctions other than *and*, 270

Sentence, the, defined, 1, 7, 217; Building of the, Part II, 217–314; "Syntax," 217; sentence defined, 217; subject defined, 217; predicate defined, 217; composed of two words, 218; of three or more words, 114; elements of, 226; the clause in, 232; the phrase in, 232; members, 233; analysis, 233, 310; synthesis, 233; connectives, 233; the simple sentence, 234–301; adjunct, 234; modifier, 234; simple, definition of, 235; components of, 235; simple, conjunctions in subject of, 269; in predicate of, 301; see COMPLEX SENTENCE; COMPOUND SENTENCE

Sentences, kinds of, 226–234; declarative, 226; interrogative, 227; imperative, 227; exclamatory, 227; *negative*, 227; negative, how formed, 227; simple, 230; principal, 230; subordinate, 231; "independent" and "dependent," 231; complex, defined, 231; compound, defined, 231; complex, explained, 301–309; compound, explained, 309–310

Sex distinguished from gender, 16; alone determines gender, 16–17; feminine pronoun indicates, 86 (footnote)

Shall, conjugation and use of, 140; distinction from *will*, 141–142

Singular number, plurals treated as singular, 38; of pronoun, plural incorrectly used for, 64; see NUMBER

Simplicity of grammar, 9; of the English verb, 135; of the English adjective, 250

Sort, "*those* sort," 82 (error)

Spelling, verbs in Simplified Spelling, 184–185; Rules for the Spelling of English Words, APPENDIX, 315

Subject, the, defined, 7, 217; of finite verb, 44; of infinitive, 46, 119, 255, 287; Rule for agreement of verb with, 125; the essential, 218; simple, 219 (1); compound, 219 (2); "subject noun or pronoun," 221; "subject base," 221; "grammatical," 221; complete, the, 221; "logical subject," 222; compound, does not make sentence compound, 236 (Caution 1); compound, distinguished from nominative with prepositional phrase, 237 (Caution 2); not made compound by an appositive, 237 (Remark 2); objective case of noun in the complete, 239; simple essential, pronoun as, 243; compound essential, pronouns in, 243; essential possessive pronoun as, 245; introductory, pronoun *it* as, 246–248; the adjective in the complete, 250–252; adjective as the essential, 250; adjunct of, modified by adjective, 251; complete, of simple sentence cannot contain finite verb, 254; may contain infinitive or

participle, 254; essential, infinitive phrase with *for* may be, 257 (1); complete, the participle in, 258–259; the adverb in, 261; of simple sentence, conjunctions in, 269; the nominative after infinitive or participle in, 278; see INVERTED CONSTRUCTION

Subjects, combinations of, with predicates, 221; subjects and predicates compared, 222

Subjunctive mode, the, 116; tenses of, 123; of *be*, 158; see CONJUGATIONS; VERB

Such, as used as relative pronoun after, 77

Superlative special by suffix *most*, 95; uses of the, 96; inclusive, 96; of two objects, 97

Superlative degree of adjectives, 91; of adverbs, 198

Supposition, conjunctions denoting, 209

Synopsis, defined, 129

Syntax, as a term, 1, 217

Synthesis of sentence, 233, 297

Tense defined, 120; present, 120; present perfect, 120; past, 120; past perfect, 120; future, 120; future perfect, 121; "imperfect," 123; "pluperfect," 123

Tenses classified, 120; six complete, in indicative mode only, 122; in all modes, 123; see CONJUGATIONS

Than after comparatives, 98; as subordinate conjunction, 209

That, as demonstrative pronoun, 70; plural of, 70; distinguished from *this*, 70; as relative pronoun, 75; as adjective pronoun, 81; as subordinate conjunction, 209 (4)

The as definite article, 102; pronunciation of, 102; uses of, 103; adjectives with, used as nouns, 103

The as an adverb, 262

There as introductory adverb, 262

These, plural of *this*, 70; "*these* kind," 82 (error)

Thine as secondary possessive, 66 (3); use of, before a vowel, 66

This, distinguished from *that*, 70; plural of, 70; as adjective pronoun, 81

Those, plural of *that*, 70; "*those* sort," 82 (error)

Thou, practically obsolete, 63; present uses of, 64; "Thou System," the, 185–191

Time, verb especially expresses, 109; divisions of, expressed by tenses, 120; adverbs denoting, 195; conjunctions denoting, 209; objective of, 282

Time-word, verb the, 109

Titles, plurals of, 37

To of the infinitive, a preposition, 117; omitted, 118

trix, as feminine suffix, 19

Value, objective of, 282

Verb, the, as a part of speech, 3; the, 108–192; definition and explanation of, 108; no sentence without, 109; expresses action, 108; expresses time, 109; active and passive voice, 114; change from active to passive, 115, 162; mode defined, 115; indicative mode, 116; subjunctive mode, 116; the finite, 120; tense defined, 120; tenses classified, 120; present tense, 120; present perfect tense, 120; past tense, 120; past perfect tense, 120; future tense, 120; future perfect tense, 121; tenses in all modes, 123; person of, defined, 123; few personal forms, 124; second person singular disused, 124; number, 124; number partially indicated in English, 124–125; Rule for agreement with subject, 125; participle, 126; list of participles, 126; conjugation, 129–168; synopsis, 129; principal parts, 129; root-form and inflected forms, 130; indicative mode, inflected forms, 130–133; condensed form of conjugation, 131; subjunctive mode, root-form, 133; imperative mode, root-form, 134; infinitive mode, root-form, 134; simplicity of, in English, 135; number of forms in English, 135; verb-phrases, 136; *have* as auxiliary, 137–138; *have* as principal verb, 139; *had rather*, as idiom, 139; auxiliaries of the future, 140; *shall*, conjugation and use of, 140; *will*, conjugation and use of, 140; distinction between *shall* and *will*, 141–142; full conjugation of the indicative, 144; of the subjunctive, 144–145; potential mode, auxiliaries of, 145; *may*, 146; *can*, 146; potential mode conjugated, 147; regular, conjugation

of *love*, active voice, 150–151; irregular, conjugation of *give*, active voice, 152–153; full conjugation of *have*, 153; semi-auxiliaries *ought* and *let*, 154; *ought* never used with *have*, *do*, etc., 154 (Caution); *let* as imperative, 154; "let alone," 155 (Peculiar Idiom); drill on conjugations (Exercise 27), 155–156; conjugation of *be*, 157; irregularity of *be*, 158; subjunctive of *be*, 158; *be* as principal verb, 159; as "copula," 159; *be* as auxiliary, 160; drill on conjugation of (Exercise 28), 160; passive voice, 160–163; of *love* (passive voice), 161; change from active to passive, 162; active to passive, drill on (Exercise 29), 162; active to passive and reverse (Exercise 30), 163; progressive conjugation, 163–165; progressive compared with ordinary form, 164 (2); peculiar use of *go*, 164 (3); interrogative form, 165; negative form, 167; negative-interrogative, 167; interrogative and negative forms, drill on (Exercise 32), 167; contracted forms, 167; uses of the participles, 168–180 (see PARTICIPLES); List of Irregular Verbs, 180–184; defective verbs, 180; redundant verbs, 181; Verbs in Simplified Spelling, 184–185; Ancient or Solemn Style, 185–191; parsing of, 192; as antecedent of preposition, 203; following preposition, 203; the finite, in definitions of subject and predicate, 217; necessary to constitute a sentence, 218; the finite, cannot be used in the subject of a simple sentence, 254; infinitive and participle in complete subject, 254; in predicate, 291–295; finite, as essential predicate, 291; "the copula," 291; complement of, 292; agreement of, 293–296

Verbs, classes of, 110; transitive, 110; intransitive, 110; both transitive and intransitive, 110; made transitive by prepositions, 110; principal, 111; auxiliary, 111; list of auxiliary verbs, 111; regular, 112; irregular, 112; "*strong*," "*weak*," etc., 112; of complete and incomplete predication, 113; properties of, 114–125; voice, 114–115; mode, 115–120; tense, 120–123; person, 123–124; number, 124–126; participles of, 126–127; full conjugations of active voice, 150–153; irregular, list of, 180–184; defective, 180; redundant, 181; in Simplified Spelling, 184–185; modified by adverbs, 193; factitive, 281; copulative, 291

Voice defined, 114; active, 114; passive, 114, 160; active and passive compared, 114; change from active to passive, 115, 162; conjugations in active, 130–160; in passive, 160–163; see also VERB

We, pronoun, always expressed, 61; special uses of, 68

Weight, the objective of, 282

What, never has antecedent, 52; as interrogative pronoun, 72; as relative pronoun, 75; as a double relative, 77; as adjective pronoun, 81

Which, as interrogative pronoun, 72; as relative pronoun, 75; *whose* as possessive of, 75; not used for persons, 76; as adjective pronoun, 81

Who, as interrogative pronoun, 72; as relative pronoun, 75; declension of, 75; refers only to persons, 76; never an adjective pronoun, 81

Whose, possessive of *who*, 75; of *which*, 75

Will, conjugation and use of, 140; distinction from *shall*, 141–142

Words, number of, compared with parts of speech, 3, 9; two may form a sentence, 7, 218; three forming sentence, 10–11, 279 (footnote); order of, 40; possessive of groups of, 42; see POSITION; INVERTED CONSTRUCTION; SPELLING

Ye and *you*, 66

You, pronoun, expressed or omitted, 61; used for *thou*, 63; remains plural in form when singular in use, 64; *you* and *ye*, 66; used indefinitely, 68

ADVERTISEMENTS

Just the Right Word To make the desired meaning clear and exact; to make a contrast sharp and strong — also the correct use of prepositions shown by illustrative examples.

English Synonyms, Antonyms, *and* Prepositions

Companion Volume to "Connectives of English Speech"

By JAMES C. FERNALD, L.H.D.

Editor "Students' Standard Dictionary," Editor Synonyms, Antonyms, and Prepositions in the Standard Dictionary

More than 7,500 classified and discriminated synonyms. Nearly 4,500 classified antonyms. Correct use of prepositions clearly shown by illustrative examples. Hints and helps on the accurate use of words, revealing surprising possibilities of fulness, freedom, and variety of utterance.

Superior to Any Other Work of the Kind

President Cochran, of the Brooklyn Polytechnic Institute, says: "I do not hesitate to say that there is no book yet offered . . . which is its equal in imparting a mastery of words. The difference in meaning which are so evident and yet so illusive as to make it very difficult to express in words, Mr. Fernald has succeeded in making with wonderful ability. The discriminations are acute, exact, and expressed in a manner intelligible to ordinary students in our high schools and colleges. . . . This book will do more to secure rhetorical perspicuity—propriety and precision of expression—*than any other text-book of higher English yet produced.*"

Uniform Size and Style with "Connectives of English Speech."
12mo, Cloth, 574 pp. $1.50, net

FUNK & WAGNALLS COMPANY, Publishers
NEW YORK AND LONDON

Just what you want to know about the correct use of Prepositions, Conjunctions, Relative Pronouns, and Adverbs is provided in concise, handy form, with illustrative examples, in this work.

Connectives of English Speech

Companion Volume to "English Synonyms, Antonyms, and Prepositions"

By JAMES C. FERNALD, L.H.D.

Editor of "The Standard Dictionary," "English Synonyms and Antonyms," etc.

Giving the definitions with the correct usage of these parts of speech so far as pertains to their office as connectives in the construction of English phrases and sentences; indicating such prepositions as should be used after verbs and those concerning which questions are likely to arise; with numerous quotations sustaining the decisions as to correct or incorrect usage.

"The topic of connecting words is one of extreme importance in the study of language, and Mr. Fernald's book is decidedly worth while."—*The Republican*, Springfield.

"In this valuable manual the reader, the writer, and the teacher will find on the instant an admirable solution for ten thousand difficulties. The arrangement is simplicity itself, and the treatment lucid and convenient."—*Public Ledger*, Phila.

"He points distinctions clearly, shows the common errors, and gives many examples drawn from a great variety of sources."—*Public Opinion*, New York.

Uniform Size and Style with "English Synonyms, Antonyms, and Prepositions." 12mo, Cloth. 334 pp. $1.50, net

FUNK & WAGNALLS COMPANY, Publishers,
NEW YORK AND LONDON

The Richest Treasure-house of the English Language

The Funk & Wagnalls

Standard Dictionary

The latest edition, new from cover to cover, contains 92,000 more terms than any other dictionary of the language, or 317,000 vocabulary terms, cyclopedia and atlas of the world, 24 beautiful colored plates, 125,000 synonyms and antonyms, besides innumerable exclusive and superior features.

In buying a Dictionary it would surely seem reasonable that you should want only that Dictionary which spells and defines *all* the real, living terms that go to make up the English language. The new Funk & Wagnalls "Standard" contains nearly 100,000 more terms than any other Dictionary published.

"The great value and importance of the work are apparent at the first glance."—*Late Hon. John Hay*, Secretary of State, Washington, D. C.

"The Standard Dictionary is a great work, well worthy of universal recognition."—*State Commissioner of Education*, New York (Hon. A. S. Draper, LL.D.), May 19, 1905.

"As regards its vocabulary, this dictionary far surpasses all of its rivals."—*The Sun*, New York.

"To say that it is *perfect in form and scope* is not extravagance of praise, and to say that it is the most valuable dictionary of the English language is but to repeat the obvious."—*The St. James Budget* (Weekly edition of *St. James's Gazette*), London.

FUNK & WAGNALLS COMPANY, Publishers
NEW YORK AND LONDON

An Indispensable Volume for those who would write and speak pure English.

A Desk-Book of Errors in English

By FRANK H. VIZETELLY, F.S.A.

Author of "The Preparation of Manuscript for the Printer." Associate Editor of the "Standard Dictionary," etc.

This compact volume deals with the hundred and one questions that arise in daily speech and correspondence, and which are not usually treated in the dictionary in the same manner as in this handy and time-saving book.

"So many common errors of speech are dinned in our ears daily that we grow careless and adopt them as correct. . . . It should be on the table of everyone who wishes to speak pure English."—*The Item*, Philadelphia.

"It is a book that should be on every writer's desk. If studied in season and out of season it will correct numerous inelegancies and vulgarities of speech."—*The Union*, Springfield, Mass.

"The book is admirably arranged to facilitate search for a decision on a moot point or a doubtful usage, and is invaluable for the writer who lacks the leisure for extended and thoughtful research."—*Star*, Washington, D. C.

12mo, Cloth, 242 pages. 75 cents.

FUNK & WAGNALLS COMPANY, Publishers
NEW YORK AND LONDON